

# Ice-Ocean Exchange Processes in the Jovian and Saturnian Satellites

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### <sup>1</sup> Ice-ocean exchange processes in outer solar system <sup>2</sup> satellites

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L.L.A. Vermeersen Technische Universiteit Delft, Deflt, The Netherlands NIOZ Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research, Yerseke, The Netherlands Abstract A growing number of satellites in the outer solar system likely have global oceans beneath their outer icy shells. While the presence of liquid water

<sup>15</sup> makes these ocean worlds compelling astrobiological targets, the exchange of heat <sup>16</sup> and materials from the deep interior to the surface also plays a critical role in

<sup>17</sup> promoting habitable environments. In this chapter, we combine geophysical, geo-

18 chemical, and geological observations of the Jovian satellites Europa, Ganymede,

<sup>19</sup> and Callisto as well as the Saturnian satellites Enceladus and Titan to summa-

 $_{\rm 20}$   $\,$  rize our current state of understanding of their interiors and surface exchange

<sup>21</sup> processes. Potential mechanisms for driving exchange processes upward from the

<sup>22</sup> ocean floor and downward from the satellite surface are then reviewed, which are

<sup>23</sup> primarily based on numerical models of ice shell and ocean dynamics and comple-

24 mented by terrestrial analog studies. Future missions to explore these exo-oceans 25 will further revolutionize our understanding of ice-ocean exchange processes and

their implications for the habitability of these worlds.

Keywords Ice-Ocean Exchange · Europa · Ganymede · Callisto · Enceladus ·
 Titan

In this chapter, we review ice-ocean exchange processes in outer solar system satellites that are the best candidates to host subsurface oceans: the icy Galilean satellites Europa, Ganymede, and Callisto and the Saturnian satellites Enceladus and Titan. Section 1 summarizes our current state of knowledge of the interiors of these moons, Section 2 describes surface exchange processes, Section 3 describes ice shell dynamics and exchange processes, Section 4 describes ocean dynamics and exchange processes, Section 5 describes terrestrial analogs, and Section 6 concludes

<sup>36</sup> with implications for habitability and future exploration.

#### 37 1 Interiors of Icy Ocean Worlds

<sup>38</sup> Most of what we know about the interiors of known icy ocean worlds comes from

<sup>39</sup> the *Galileo* (1989-2003) and *Cassini-Huygens* (1997-2017) missions. As reviewed

 $_{40}$  by Hussmann et al (2015) among others, the interiors of icy satellites are ex-

<sup>41</sup> plored through the following data: radius and mass, gravity field, magnetic field,

<sup>42</sup> rotational state and shape/topography, surface temperatures and heat flow, com-

43 position of surface and atmosphere, activity at the surface, and knowledge of its

formation and evolution including surface geology and tectonics, orbital dynamics,

and chemical environment during accretion. Complementary to these observational
 data are laboratory and numerical data on the material properties of water/ice,

<sup>47</sup> rock, and metal, as well as their equations of state (e.g., Choukroun and Grasset,

48 2010; Vance and Brown, 2013; McDougall and Barker, 2011; Lemmon et al, 2007;

<sup>49</sup> Connolly, 2009; Balog et al, 2003). In this section, we first review the differentia-

<sup>50</sup> tion states and ocean existence, followed by more detailed descriptions of interior

<sup>51</sup> structures of the most prominent ocean worlds among the outer solar system satel-

52 lites.

#### 53 1.1 Differentiation and Ocean Existence

<sup>54</sup> Mass and radius allow calculation of the mean density and an assessment of <sup>55</sup> whether a satellite is rich in rock/iron or in ice. The gravity data, in particu-

lar the  $J_2$  and  $C_{22}$  components (e.g., Anderson et al, 1996, 1998b, a, 2001), can 56 be used to derive the moment of inertia factor (MoI) if the satellite can be as-57 sumed to be in hydrostatic equilibrium. Only for Titan have both gravitational 58 coefficients been determined and this ratio of nearly 10/3 is compatible with hy-59 drostatic equilibrium at  $2\sigma$  (Durante et al, 2019). Together with mass and radius, 60 the MoI allows construction of simple, albeit non-unique, interior structure mod-61 els that indicate whether or not a satellite has differentiated. The MoI factor of 62 a homogeneous density sphere is 0.4, and a smaller value indicates an increase 63 of density with depth, hence possible differentiation. Ice on the surface together 64 with a low enough value of the moment of inertia factor allows speculation about 65 a water/ice layer on top of a rock layer. Table 1 collects data on the mass, radii, 66 and MoI of major icy satellites of the solar system. 67

**Table 1** Mass, radii, and moment of inertia of major icy satellites of the solar system. Data:Hussmann et al (2015) for Europa, Ganymede, and Callisto; Iess et al (2014), Roatsch et al(2009), and Jacobson et al (2006) for Enceladus; and Durante et al (2019) for Titan.

	Europa	Ganymede	Callisto	Enceladus	Titan
Mass $(10^{22} \text{ kg})$	4.8	14.8	10.8	0.01	13.5
Radius (km)	1565	2631	2410	252	2575
Mean density (kg)	2989	1942	1835	1609	1881
MoI	0.346	0.312	0.355	0.335	0.341

The bulk densities of Ganymede, Callisto, Enceladus, and Titan suggest that 68 their interiors contain 40 to 60% of ice/water, while Europa is a predominantly 69 rocky body with a bulk ice/water mass fraction of only 6-9% (Hussmann et al, 70 2015). The level of differentiation of the interiors, however, likely differs between 71 the satellites. Europa and Ganymede are thought to be fully differentiated into 72 a central metallic core, a silicate mantle, and outer water ice-liquid shell (e.g., 73 Anderson et al, 1996, 1998b). Enceladus is differentiated with a water ice-liquid 74 outer shell and central rocky core that may be porous given the satellite's low 75 mass and mean density, which prohibits a substantial metallic contribution (e.g., 76 Iess et al, 2014; Roberts, 2015; Čadek et al, 2016; Beuthe et al, 2016). In contrast, 77 Callisto and Titan are only partially differentiated with an H<sub>2</sub>O layer overlying a 78 core of ice mixed with rocks and metal up to significant depth, maybe up to the 79 center (e.g., Anderson et al, 1998b; Sohl et al, 2003; Iess et al, 2010; Castillo-Rogez 80 and Lunine, 2010; Tobie et al, 2005; Gao and Stevenson, 2013; Baland et al, 2014). 81 A model of slow and incomplete differentiation of Callisto has been discussed by 82 Nagel et al (2004), while Barr and Canup (2010) suggest partial differentiation of 83 Titan due to undifferentiated accretion and core formation due to impacts that 84 allowed only some of Titan's rock to form a core. 85 It is widely agreed that these icy satellites have an outer ice I layer that is, in 86

most cases, underlain by an ocean. The strongest observational evidence for the icy
Galilean satellites was the detection of magnetic induction signals counteracting
the time-variable magnetic field of Jupiter in the satellites' rest frames (Khurana
et al, 1998; Neubauer, 1998; Zimmer et al, 2000; Kivelson et al, 2002). These
signals are best explained by the presence of a electrically conducting fluid (i.e.
a salty ocean) beneath the surface of the satellite. Strong geologic evidence for a

<sup>93</sup> global ocean also exists for Europa (e.g., Pappalardo et al, 1999), and observations

94 of oscillations in auroral ovals by the Hubble Space Telescope have confirmed that

<sup>95</sup> Ganymede has a global subsurface ocean (Saur et al, 2015). In contrast, the case

- <sup>96</sup> for Callisto is less clear since induction within the satellite's ionosphere may also
- <sup>97</sup> explain the observed magnetic fields (Hartkorn and Saur, 2017).

For satellites of Saturn, the same approach is not feasible since Saturn's mag-98 netic field is not inclined with respect to the rotation axis, in contrast to Jupiter 99 (dipole tilt of 9 degrees), and therefore the satellites do not sense a systematic 100 time-periodic field in their rest frame. Instead, the existence of subsurface oceans 101 and characterisation of their properties have relied on a variety of other meth-102 ods. Cassini measurements of water vapour (e.g., Porco et al, 2006; Dougherty 103 et al, 2006) and salty grains from geysers on Enceladus (e.g., Postberg et al, 2009) 104 indicated the existence of water reservoirs beneath the surface, and the global 105 character of the distribution of water as a subsurface ocean was demonstrated 106 107 by gravity data (McKinnon, 2015) and libration measurements (Thomas et al, 2016). Evidence for a subsurface ocean on Titan is based on the tidal Love num-108 ber estimation from time-varying gravity field (Iess et al, 2012), detection of an 109 electric perturbation by Huygens during its descent through Titan's atmosphere 110 that was interpreted as a Schumann resonance (Béghin et al, 2012), and precise 111 measurements of the spin pole orientation (e.g., Baland et al, 2014). 112

The bottom of the water layer may border to a rocky layer as in the case of Europa and Enceladus or to a high pressure ice layer as is likely the case for Ganymede, Callisto, and Titan. It is also possible that the underlying ice layer is mixed with rock as may be the case for Callisto and Titan if these are incompletely differentiated. High-pressure ice layers are not feasible on Europa and Enceladus due to their small size. More detailed discussions on the the high-pressure ice layer can be found in Journaux et al (2019) (this issue).

The feasibility of subsurface oceans from energy balances of the satellites has 120 been concluded by, for example, Spohn and Schubert (2003), Hussmann et al 121 (2006), and others (compare section 3 below). Maintaining an ocean until the 122 present day requires energy sources and/or the depression of the ice melting point 123 due to the inclusion of other components such as salts or ammonia. Possible energy 124 sources are internal heating coming from radioactive decay in the rocky part of 125 the satellite (e.g., Spohn and Schubert, 2003); dissipation of tidal energy in the 126 rocky interior (e.g., Choblet et al, 2017a), the ocean (e.g., Tyler, 2009; Wilson 127 and Kerswell, 2018), and/or the outer ice shell (e.g., Hussmann et al, 2006); and 128 ohmic dissipation in the ocean (Gissinger and Petitdemange, 2019). Tidal heating 129 is likely important for Europa and Enceladus, but less so for Titan, Ganymede, 130 and Callisto. This is because of Europa's proximity to Jupiter and the Laplace 131 resonance and because Enceladus likely has a porous core that maintains strong 132 tidal friction; both satellites also have the smallest pressure gradient shifting the 133 water ice triple point to greater depth. Ohmic dissipation is expected to be rela-134 tively weak, but can be enhanced locally (Gissinger and Petitdemange, 2019, see 135 Section 4.3). Another crucial factor in sustaining an ocean is heat transport in the 136 ice I layer. Spohn and Schubert (2003) (see also references cited in section 3 below) 137 investigated various scenarios assuming a purely conductive and a convective ice I 138 layer. They find that for pure water ice, convection might lead to complete freezing 139 of the oceans, although the results depend on uncertain parameter values for the 140 viscosity of the ice I layer and the scaling of convective vigor. A present-day global 141

ocean for Enceladus has proven hard to explain based on thermal evolution mod-

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els, which predict heat production rates given by present orbital conditions below the expected global heat flow (Roberts and Nimmo, 2008; Tobie et al, 2008). The discrepancies between estimates of surface heat flow and tidal heating rates could potentially be explained if Enceladus formed relatively recently, if tidal heating and cooling were highly time variable rate (episodic or periodic), or if the effective rate of dissipation within Saturn is larger than the conventional value (Nimmo et al, 2018).

#### <sup>150</sup> 1.2 Internal Structure

<sup>151</sup> With this general picture in mind, we will now review more detailed structures for

each of the satellites. Interior models that represent possible internal structures of

<sup>153</sup> Jovian and Saturnian icy ocean worlds are shown in Figure 1.



Fig. 1 Spherically symmetric internal structure models that are consistent with geophysical constraints and use state-of-the-art equations of state and thermodynamic properties from Vance et al (2018a). *Cassini* radio science and imaging measurements provide further details for the structures of Enceladus (Čadek et al, 2019; Hemingway and Mittal, 2019) and Titan (Corlies et al, 2017; Durante et al, 2019), revealing that their ice shells are not uniform in thickness, likely owing to thermal or compositional heterogeneities.

#### 154 1.2.1 Europa

Gravity data in combination with the mass and radius constraints permit con-155 struction of density profiles with radius. These profiles typically take the form of 156 three-layer interior models an outer ice-liquid water layer, a rocky mantle, and a 157 central metallic core for Europa. Hydrostatic equilibrium is also assumed because 158 independent measurements of  $C_{22}$  and  $J_2$  are lacking (e.g., Schubert et al, 2004). 159 For a three-layer model, the core and mantle radii can be determined if the density 160 of each layer is assumed, leading to uncertainties in their values. In addition, solid 161 ice and liquid water layers cannot be distinguished due to the small density con-162 trast between them. These models suggest that Europa has a outer  $H_2O$  layer that 163 ranges from 80 km to 170 km (Anderson et al, 1998b; Sohl et al, 2002). Geologic 164 and geodynamic arguments predict ice shell thicknesses that range from  $\sim 3$  km 165 to >30 km based on mechanical, thermal, cratering, and other methods (Billings 166 and Kattenhorn, 2005, see their Table 1 for a summary). The core radius depends 167 on its assumed composition as well as the water layer thickness, ranging from 700 168 km for a Fe-FeS eutectic core composition and 100 km thick water layer to 200 km 169 for a pure Fe core composition and 170 km thick water layer (Sohl et al, 2002). 170

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<sup>171</sup> Mantle densities are consistent with an olivine-dominated mineralogy, becoming <sup>172</sup> increasingly forsterite rich with decreasing water layer thickness (Sohl et al, 2002).

Magnetic field measurements add additional constraints on the interior struc-173 ture and composition because their observational characterisation can, in principle, 174 constrain the electrical conductivity, depth beneath the surface, and thickness of 175 the ocean (e.g., Zimmer et al, 2000; Khurana et al, 2002; Seufert et al, 2011). 176 Since the *Galileo* mission only observed induction from the main signal caused by 177 Jupiter's synodic period seen in the satellite's rest frame, it was not possible to 178 estimate these parameters individually. Schilling et al (2007) found magnetic field 179 data are best explained by electrical conductivity values of  $\gtrsim 0.5$  S/m with ocean 180 thicknesses of  $\lesssim 100$  km. 181

The composition-dissolved organic and inorganic speciation, salinity, and 182 pH-of Europa's ocean is poorly constrained. Most models and aqueous leach-183 ing experiments suggest that magnesium sulfate  $(MgSO_4)$  is the dominant salt, 184 in contrast to sodium chloride (NaCl) as in Earth's ocean (Fanale et al, 2001; 185 Kargel et al, 2000; Zolotov and Shock, 2001; McKinnon and Zolensky, 2003), al-186 though the concentration varies strongly between models and spans nearly five 187 orders of magnitude across the literature. Recent spectroscopic observations from 188 Earth (Fischer et al, 2015; Trumbo et al, 2019), which trade the higher spatial 189 resolution of *Galileo* near-infrared imaging for better spectral resolution—reveal 190 chlorides associated with active features. Recent interpretations of Galileo Near 191 Infrared Mapping Spectrometer (NIMS) data in the light of new laboratory spec-192 tra find that perchlorates—oxidized Cl ostensibly from the internal ocean—can 193 also match absorption features of surface materials (Hanley et al, 2014). The red-194 dish tint of Europa's non-icy materials surface materials has been attributed to 195 radiation-induced flaws in crystalline sodium (e.g., Hand and Carlson, 2015). These 196 many lines of evidence for endogenous chlorine do not rule out a sulfate dominated 197 ocean. As noted by Zolotov and Kargel (2009), a highly oxidized ocean dominated 198 by  $Mg^{2+}$  and  $SO_4^{2-}$  also has substantial Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup>. Equilibrium freezing of 199 such an ocean yields a fractionated eutectic composition of mainly NaCl that is 200 nearly identical to the result of applying the same method to seawater (Vance 201 et al, 2019). Further complicating the interpretation of Europa's ocean compo-202 sition based on the composition of its surface, the speciation of surface salts is 203 influenced by radiation and by the speed at which freezing (or refreezing) oc-204 curs (Vu et al, 2016). Thus, it is best to remain agnostic about Europa's ocean 205 composition until firmer constraints on interior structure, ice thickness, surface 206 composition, and potentially plume composition, can be obtained with NASA's 207 Europa Clipper mission. 208

#### 209 1.2.2 Ganymede

Models for Ganymede's internal structure, again constrained by mass and gravity data under the assumption of hydrostatic equilibrium, suggest an outer ice-liquid water layer between 600 to 900 km thick, with significant high-pressure ice phases; an intermediate mantle with thicknesses up to 1000 km and density consistent with an olivine-dominated, mostly dehydrated composition; and a central metallic core whose radius may extend from about 500 km to more than 1000 km depending on core composition (Anderson et al, 1996; Deschamps and Sotin, 2001; Kuskov and Kronrod, 2001; Sohl et al, 2002; Vance et al, 2014, 2018a). Multiple pressureinduced phase transitions are expected within Ganymede's outer water layer, and the outermost ice I shell is expected to be less than ~150 km thick (Vance et al,

220 2014, 2018a).

Measurements of the induced magnetic field by *Galileo* and auroral oval oscil-221 lations observed by the Hubble Space Telescope indicate that the ocean electrical 222 conductivity is at least 0.09 S/m, which corresponds to a minimum salt concen-223 tration of 0.9 gram MgSO<sub>4</sub> per kilogram of ocean water, for an ocean between 150 224 to 250 km depths (Saur et al, 2015). As for Europa, a bias toward a magnesium 225 sulfate ocean composition for Ganymede is based firstly on models for the aqueous 226 alteration of CI chondrites (Kargel, 1991)—subsequently shown to be erroneous 227 (McKinnon and Zolensky, 2003)—that provided a good match to Galileo NIMS 228 spectra that fit well to MgSO<sub>4</sub>. The ocean's oxidation state, and thus the domi-229 nant ionic composition, remain to be confirmed by further measurements, notably 230 by the European Space Agency's JUpiter ICy moon Explorer (JUICE) mission 231 Grasset et al (2013). The intrinsic magnetic field of Ganymede further implies the 232 formation of an iron-rich core that may itself be layered with a solid inner and 233 fluid outer core (e.g., Rückriemen et al, 2018). 234

#### 235 1.2.3 Callisto

The interior structure of Callisto is the least constrained of the Galilean satellites. 236 Here, the interpretations are less clear because the satellite may not be in hydro-237 static equilibrium (Gao and Stevenson, 2013) and the induced magnetic field signal 238 may be due to the ionosphere rather than a subsurface ocean (Hartkorn and Saur, 239 2017). The MoI-factor assuming hydrostatic equilibrium (Anderson et al, 2001) 240 prohibits a metallic core, requires low mantle densities that are consistent with a 241 saturated pyrolite composition, and corresponds to water layers that are  $\lesssim 250$ 242 km thick (Vance et al, 2018a). Conversely, a significantly lower MoI estimate that 243 does not assume hydrostatic equilibrium (Gao and Stevenson, 2013) requires a 244 central iron core and mantle densities that are consistent with an anhydrous pyro-245 lite composition (Vance et al, 2018a). If an ocean is present, Zimmer et al (2000) 246 found that the magnetic field data are best explained by electrical conductivity 247 values of  $\gtrsim 0.02$  S/m with ocean thicknesses of  $\lesssim 300$  km. Because Callisto formed 248 farthest from Jupiter of the Galilean satellites, any ocean that is present may be 249 nearly frozen, making it an appealing target for studying the end stage dynamics 250 of a large ocean world. 251

#### 252 1.2.4 Enceladus

Recent observational data from the Cassini-Huygens mission has shed new light 253 on the interiors of Saturnian satellites. At Enceladus, measurements of the gravity 254 field, the shape and rotational state, and direct sampling of plume material all pro-255 vide constraints on internal structure and composition. Early shape and gravity 256 measurements, in combination with geyser activity near the south pole, indicated 257 the presence of a subsurface water reservoir (e.g., Porco et al, 2006; Dougherty 258 et al, 2006; Thomas et al, 2007; Collins and Goodman, 2007; Iess et al, 2014). A 259 global ocean was determined decisively by detection of a significant physical libra-260 tion (Thomas et al, 2016). The libration amplitude is about four times larger than 261

expected for a solid Enceladus due to the decoupling of the rotational behaviour 262 of the shell with respect to the deeper solid interior and indicates that the ocean is 263 about 20 km beneath the surface on average and that the mean ocean thickness is 264 between 21 and 67 km (Thomas et al, 2016; Van Hoolst et al, 2016). Independent 265 confirmation of these results was obtained by gravity (less et al, 2014) and to-266 pography (Nimmo et al, 2011; Tajeddine et al, 2017) data that predict, assuming 267 isostasy at the long wavelengths observed in the gravity field, a core radius of  $\sim 190$ 268 km, an ocean thickness of  $\sim 40$  km, and a shell thickness of  $\sim 20$  km, on average 269 (Beuthe et al, 2016; Čadek et al, 2016). Large variations in ice shell thickness 270 exist, with mean equatorial, north polar, and south polar thicknesses of approx-271 imately 30 km, 15 km, and 5 km, respectively. (McKinnon, 2015; Thomas et al, 272 2016; Beuthe et al, 2016; Cadek et al, 2016, 2019; Hemingway and Mittal, 2019). 273 A thinner ice shell at the south pole of Enceladus favors the exchange between the 274 rocky interior, where hydrothermal processes are likely present (Hsu et al, 2015), 275 and the surface (see Section 2.4). 276

Out of all the water oceans that inevitably exist in the universe, Enceladus' 277 is the one that we know about second best (Glein et al, 2018; Postberg et al, 278 2018a). Measurements of the composition of grains and gases erupted out of Ence-279 ladus in the form of a plume show that the satellite's ocean contains four classes 280 of materials. The first class is salts (Postberg et al, 2009, 2011) that are domi-281 nated by sodium chloride (NaCl), and sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO<sub>3</sub>) or carbon-282 ate (Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>). Potassium salts also appear to be present, but are  $\sim 10^2$  times less 283 abundant than their sodium counterparts (Postberg et al, 2009). Second, in situ 284 observations of dust in the inner Saturn system (Hsu et al, 2015) indicate that 285 some plume grains from Enceladus contain embedded nanometer-sized particles 286 of nearly pure silica (SiO<sub>2</sub>). Third, the major plume volatiles are  $H_2O$ ,  $H_2$ ,  $NH_3$ , 287  $CO_2$ , and  $CH_4$  (Waite et al, 2017). The presence of minor and trace species, includ-288 ing volatile organic compounds (VOCs), is also implied by the mass spectrometry 289 data from Cassini, although identifying and quantifying individual minor and trace 290 species is challenging because the insufficiently resolved mass spectra allow multi-291 ple degenerate solutions to the composition (Magee and Waite, 2017). Two effects 292 that may lead to more uncertainty in the volatile composition are chemical reac-293 tions induced by grain impacts onto instrument surfaces (Waite et al, 2009), and 294 adsorption of VOCs onto ice grains in the plume (Bouquet et al, 2019). These ef-295 fects can be partially mitigated by focusing on the most weakly adsorbing volatiles 296 (e.g., hydrocarbons) during the slowest flybys. The fourth class of materials in the 297 plume are macromolecular organic compounds (Postberg et al, 2018b). The data 298 from Cassini suggest that these materials have high molecular masses (>200 u), 299 and are carbon-rich (low H/C ratios) owing to an abundance of unsaturated car-300 bon atoms in unfused benzene rings. These features result in hydrophobic phase 301 separation from water. The data also suggest the presence of further chemical 302 complexity in the form of oxygen- and nitrogen-bearing functional groups in the 303 observed organic matter. 304

### 305 1.2.5 Titan

Multiple lines of evidence from the *Cassini-Huygens* mission also constrain Titan's interior. The observation of a Schumann-like resonance by the *Huygens* probe is

not compatible with an entirely solid satellite and can be explained by a conduct-308 ing ocean 55 to 80 km below the surface, which acts as a reflecting boundary for 309 Extremely Low Frequency (ELF) waves (Béghin et al, 2012). Gravity and topog-310 raphy also indicate an ocean that is, on average, about 100 km beneath the surface 311 (Nimmo and Bills, 2010). Measurements of the time-varying gravity field of Titan 312 determining the tidal Love number  $(k_2 = 0.616 \pm 0.067)$  (Durante et al, 2019) also 313 imply an ice shell thickness between 50-100 km (e.g., Mitri et al, 2014), which is 314 consistent with thermal modeling results (Tobie et al, 2006; Mitri et al, 2010). 315

The gravitational constraints provide not only unambiguous evidence of a sub-316 surface ocean close to the surface, but also indicate that Titan's subsurface ocean 317 is likely much denser than pure water. The ocean appears to have a high bulk den-318 sity, exceeding  $1100 \text{ kg/m}^3$ , based on the large value of the measured tidal Love 319 number (Iess et al, 2012; Baland et al, 2014; Lefevre et al, 2014; Mitri et al, 2014; 320 Vance et al, 2018a; Durante et al, 2019). Magnesium and ammonium sulfates have 321 been proposed on the basis of chemical and physical models (Fortes et al, 2007) 322 and in the context of experiments investigating the chemistry of these compounds 323 (Hogenboom, 1995; Hogenboom et al, 1997; Vance and Goodman, 2013). The high 324 density constraint could be met with  $10 \text{ wt\% MgSO}_4$  (Vance et al, 2018a). A re-325 ducing ocean dominated instead by chlorides can obtain similar large densities, 326 but equation of state data in the relevant pressure range are not yet available to 327 demonstrate this. A saline ocean is not expressly required by the current uncer-328 tainty in the Love number, though, which permits densities as low as  $1100 \text{ kg/m}^3$ 329 consistent with the pure water or even 3 wt% ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) cases as described 330 by Vance et al (2018a). The high Love number could alternatively be explained 331 by a significant viscous behavior of the interior below the ocean (Durante et al, 332 2019) or by a resonantly excited internal gravity mode, which would require the 333 ocean to be stably stratified (Luan, 2019). 334

A dense, salty ocean and thin ice require a high heat flux, exceeding 800 GW 335  $(10 \text{ mW/m}^2)$  (Vance et al, 2018a). Such a high heat flux would be consistent 336 with recent geological activation of Titan, perhaps concurrent with the formation 337 of Saturn's rings (Ćuk et al, 2016). A dense ocean and thin ice only worsen the 338 problem of accounting for the low density  $(2600 \text{ kg/m}^3)$  of Titan's rocky interior. 339 It thus seems likely that Titan is weakly differentiated, highly porous, or both. 340 Alternatively, a differentiated Titan with a small metallic core (R < 400 km) 341 would be permitted by the gravitational constraints if the low density layer under 342 the ocean can be explained (Vance et al, 2018a). The presence of some dissolved 343 electrolytes in Titan's ocean solutes is consistent with the model used for the ELF 344 waves, and with a potential low temperature at the top ocean compatible with a 345 likely rigid ice shell (Vance et al, 2018a). An intriguing possibility is that the low 346 density of Titan's interior can be explained by the presence of organic materials. Geochemical modeling can reproduce the ratios of  ${}^{36}\text{Ar}/\text{N}_2$  and  ${}^{15}\text{N}/{}^{14}\text{N}$  as mea-347 348 sured by Huygens in Titan's atmosphere, if the building blocks of Titan contained 349 abundant organic materials that were subsequently heated and outgassed from 350 the deep interior (Miller et al, 2019). This idea is challenging to model because it 351 requires thermodynamic descriptions of organic-rich mineral assemblages that are 352 rare or non-existent in Earth's geology. 353

#### 354 2 Surface Exchange Processes

Potential surface expressions of ice-ocean material exchange occur vary widely 355 in morphology and age across the satellites. The mechanisms of exchange can be 356 broadly categorized into those caused by impact processes, tectonic processes, cry-357 ovolcanic/outgassing processes, and plume processes; a unique morphology char-358 acterized by in situ surface disruption suggestive of lithospheric thinning, termed 359 chaos, is observed on Europa and will be discussed separately. Europa exhibits 360 global resurfacing with a surface age between 30 and 90 million years (Bierhaus 361 et al, 2009), while Enceladus' surface exhibits both ancient terrains and ongoing 362 geologic activity (e.g., Patterson et al, 2018). Titan's surface is also geologically 363 active, with its thick atmosphere and hydrocarbons seas playing a significant role 364 that will not be discussed in detail here (see Jaumann et al (2009) for a review). 365 Conversely, Ganymede and Callisto show older and more limited signs of surface 366 exchange (Schenk et al, 2004). 367

#### 368 2.1 Impact Processes

Multi-ringed structures observed on the icy worlds Callisto, Ganymede, and Eu-369 ropa range in size from the  $\sim 2000$  km diameter Valhalla basin ring system on 370 Callisto (Kinnon and Melosh, 1980; Moore et al, 2004; Schenk et al, 2004) to the 371  $\sim$ 300 km diameter Tyre multi-ringed structure on Europa (Schenk et al, 2004; 372 Schenk and Turtle, 2009). They all share morphological characteristics that sug-373 gest impact into a relatively thin brittle lithosphere underlain by a ductile or liquid 374 subsurface (Kinnon and Melosh, 1980; Melosh, 1989). The scale of multi-ring basins 375 on Callisto and Ganymede suggests the possibility of direct exchange between the 376 ice shell and ocean of the satellites. However, the depth to the ice-ocean interface 377 at the time of formation for these basins is not known, leaving open the possibil-378 ity that their ice shells were not breached during the formation of these features. 379 An abrupt transition from complex crater morphologies to multi-ring morpholo-380 gies observed on Europa indicates a similarly abrupt transition from ice to water 381 may occur at depths of 10 to a few 10s of km (Schenk et al, 2004) and suggests 382 impacts that formed multi-ring structures could have sampled the satellite's sub-383 surface ocean. However, a lack of radial faulting associated with the formation of 384 multi-ring structures on Europa argues that they may not have breached its ice 385 shell (Turtle, 1998; Kadel et al, 2000). While clear evidence for direct ice-ocean 386 material exchange is not present in association with this process, the potential for 387 convection within the ice shells of Callisto, Ganymede, and Europa (Shoemaker 388 et al, 1982; Schubert et al, 2004; Barr and Showman, 2009) indicates that indirect 389 ice-ocean exchange could still occur. 390

Palimpsests are impact features that appear to be unique to Callisto and 391 Ganymede. They are generally circular to slightly elliptical albedo features that 392 leave a barely discernable topographic imprint and are characterized by faint con-393 centric lineations and, often, a central smooth region (Schenk et al, 2004; Patterson 394 et al, 2010). Their diameters are measured in 100s of km and, similar to the older 395 multi-ring basins, their formation has been attributed to impact into a relatively 396 thin brittle lithosphere (Shoemaker et al, 1982). As with multi-ring basins, it is 397 possible that direct ice-ocean exchange could have occurred when these features 398

formed, but not clearly so. However, as with the multi-ring basins and structures,
indirect exchange of material is also a possibility.

Several numerical studies using hydrocodes have been performed to investigate 401 under which conditions melt may be generated upon impact and impact crater-402 ing may excavate oceanic water to the surface (e.g., Artemieva and Lunine, 2003; 403 Kraus et al, 2011; Senft and Stewart, 2011). For thin ice shells ( $\leq 10$ km), a pro-404 jectile of a few kilometers in diameter is sufficient to break the entire shell and 405 expose water to the surface (e.g., Turtle and Pierazzo, 2001; Lunine et al, 2010). 406 For thicker ice shells, exposure of oceanic water is still possible if the projectile 407 size is about half the ice shell thickness (e.g., Artemieva and Lunine, 2005; Lunine 408 et al, 2010). Large impacts such as the one that formed the Menrva crater on 409 Titan, for example, should have brought large volume of water to the surface and 410 temporarily changed the climate of Titan by potentially rising the surface tem-411 perature by 80 K (Zahnle et al, 2014). Monteux et al (2016) also showed that an 412 impactor of 25 km in radius at moderate velocity ( $\sim 2 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ ) was able to totally 413 disrupt the ice shell and excavate huge volume of oceanic water to the surface. 414 Even if such large impact events remain rare during the moon history, they have 415 the potential to induce resurfacing from regional to global scale, for sufficiently 416 large impacts. 417

#### 418 2.2 Tectonic Processes

Ridges on Europa come in a variety of morphological forms, are observed on length 419 scales of up to 1000s of kilometers, and can range from linear to cycloidal to 420 anastomosing in planform (Prockter and Patterson, 2009). Double ridges are by 421 far the most common ridge type on Europa and are observed over most of the 422 satellite's visible surface history (Figueredo and Greeley, 2000, 2004). Numerous 423 models have been suggested for the formation of ridges on Europa, all of which 424 appeal to the exploitation of a pre-existing fracture in Europa's ice shell. The 425 most widely accepted model of ridge formation suggests that cyclical strike-slip 426 motion on a pre-existing fracture will dissipate heat and cause the warmer, now 427 more buoyant, ice flanking the fracture to uplift and form a double ridge (Nimmo 428 and Gaidos, 2002; Han and Showman, 2008; Kalousová et al, 2016). This process 429 could also create melt that would migrate down the fracture and, provided the 430 fracture penetrates the brittle lithosphere, could provide a direct or indirect path 431 of bringing surface material to Europa's subsurface ocean. The path taken would 432 depend on the thickness and rheology of the shell. Other models of ridge formation 433 suggest they could be pathways for fissure eruptions (Kadel et al, 1998), dike 434 intrusions (Turtle et al, 1998), linear diapirism (Head et al, 1999), or melt squeezed 435 to the surface via cyclical tidal (Greenberg et al, 1998). More recently, subsurface 436 sills feeding cryoclastic eruptions has been proposed (Dombard et al, 2013; Craft 437 et al, 2016). In contrast with the shear heating model, these models imply that 438 ocean material would be brought to the surface or near surface. 439

Some double ridges and ridge complexes (another morphological feature class) on Europa are flanked by deposits that are relatively low albedo and extend for up to 10 km on either side of the feature they are associated with (Lucchitta and Soderblom, 1982; Belton et al, 1996). The dark material is likely a relatively thin surficial deposit that drapes over the preexisting terrain (Geissler et al, 1998;



Fig. 2 Impact and tectonic features of icy ocean worlds. (a) The prominent impact basin Valhalla on Callisto. The circular region is 300 km in diameter and basin rings extend 1500 km from the basin center. (b) The 340 km diameter palimpsest Memphis Facula on Ganymede. (c) An archetype double ridge on Europa, Androgeous Linea. (d) A dilational band, Astypalaea Linea, on Europa.

Fagents et al, 2000). These deposits may be continuous along the flanks of a ridge, 445 or spaced in discrete subcircular regions along the margins of a ridge (Prockter 446 and Patterson, 2009). Observations by the Galileo NIMS instrument suggest that 447 low albedo deposits associated with tectonic features on Europa are composed 448 of sulfates (McCord et al, 2002) or MgCl<sub>2</sub> (Brown and Hand, 2013; Ligier et al, 449 2016) that are converted into magnesium sulfates through radiolytic processes. 450 The proposed compositions of low albedo deposits suggest that they were initially 451 emplaced by an endogenic process and have subsequently been affected by exposure 452 to the local radiation environment. 453

Ridges on Enceladus also come in a variety of forms (Patterson et al, 2018)
but the most relevant of them for discussing ice-ocean exchange are the 'tiger
stripes' of the South Polar Terrain (SPT). The SPT is a pervasively fractured,
geologically young, and low-lying region bound by a quasi-polygonal circumpolar
system of scarps that are intermittently broken by Y-shaped structures (Porco
et al, 2006; Helfenstein, 2014). Within this terrain are the ridges Damascus Sulcus,
Baghdad Sulcus, Cairo Sulcus, and Alexandria Sulcus, collectively referred to as

tiger stripes. These features are associated with anomalously high heat flows and
are geologically active, as evidenced by eruptive jets (see Section 2.4) of water
and other constituents (e.g., Porco et al, 2006; Hansen et al, 2008) that are likely
sourced directly from Enceladus' subsurface ocean (Spencer et al, 2018).

Bands on Europa are another class of tectonic feature whose formation could 465 facilitate ice-ocean material exchange. This feature can be subdivided into three 466 morphological classes: dilational bands, bright bands, subsumption bands. Dila-467 tional bands, also referred to as pull-apart bands, are the more commonly observed 468 feature type (Figueredo and Greeley, 2000, 2004). These bands have margins that 469 can be easily reconstructed (Schenk and McKinnon, 1989; Pappalardo and Sulli-470 van, 1996; Sullivan et al, 1998), indicating that their interiors consist of subsurface 471 material that has been emplaced at the surface of Europa (e.g., Howell and Pap-472 palardo, 2018). Dilational band formation represents a significant process by which 473 Europa's crust has been resurfaced (Schenk and McKinnon, 1989; Pappalardo and 474 Sullivan, 1996; Prockter et al, 2002). Two endmember models have been proposed 475 for the formation of pull-apart bands. One is the tidal pumping model proposed 476 by (Tufts et al, 2000). That model suggests that bands are part of a continuum 477 process that begins with the formation of a fracture, progresses to a ridge, and 478 ultimately ends in the formation of a dilational band. This mechanism proposes 479 direct exchange of ocean material with the surface of Europa. The second model, 480 by Prockter et al (2002), proposes that band formation is distinct from that of 481 ridges and involves solid-state material rising to fill the separating margins of a 482 preexisting fracture in a manner analogous to terrestrial mid-ocean ridges. This 483 mechanism would imply indirect exchange of ocean material with the surface. Ana-484 log wax experiments have indicated that oblique opening and shearing commonly 485 associated with the formation of dilational bands is best explained with the latter 486 model of formation (Manga and Sinton, 2004). Bright bands are linear features 487 that disrupt preexisting terrain and have internal textures reminiscent of dila-488 tional bands. However, unlike that feature type, bright bands are far less common 489 and have margins that do not appear as if they can be reconstructed. Forma-490 tion mechanisms relying on dilational, contractional, and/or lateral deformation 491 have all been proposed to explain the unique characteristics of this type of band 492 (Prockter and Patterson, 2009). Depending on the formation mechanism used (or 493 combination thereof), ice-ocean exchange is possible, but without additional data 494 to test the proposed formation models, the potential importance of this feature 495 type for material exchange is not as clear as it is with dilational bands. Recent 496 work has introduced a new band feature class: subsumption bands (Kattenhorn 497 and Prockter, 2014). This feature type has been observed within Falga Regio on 498 Europa and is associated with the loss of surface material. It is not clear if material 499 subducted in this manner would reach the ice-ocean interface, though. 500 501

#### 502 2.3 Cryovolcanic and Outgassing Processes

The potential for cryovolcanic activity on Ganymede has changed significantly between analyses conducted using *Voyager* versus *Galileo* data. Based on *Voyager* images, dark material on Ganymede was interpreted to have been modified

<sup>505</sup> *ager* images, dark material on Ganymede was interpreted to have been modified <sup>506</sup> by cryovolcanic activity (Murchie and Head, 1989; Croft et al, 1994). This inIce-ocean exchange processes in outer solar system satellites



Fig. 3 Oblique view of a depression found within Sippar Sulcus, Ganymede, and acquired during the G8 encounter at 179 m/pixel, where south is up. This feature has a surface texture that may be indicative of flow toward its open end, consistent with it being a source region for icy volcanic material. From (Patterson et al. 2010).

507 terpretation was supported by an apparent absence of small craters, embayment relationships observed in association with large craters, and smooth areas asso-508 ciated with tectonic and impact features (Casacchia and Strom, 1984; Murchie 509 et al, 1990; Schenk and Moore, 1995). Groove lanes that pervasively disrupt dark 510 material on Ganymede were interpreted to represent regions of resurfacing by cry-511 ovolcanic flows, which were subsequently tectonized in some areas to form grooves 512 (Golombek and Allison, 1981; Golombek, 1982; Shoemaker et al, 1982; Allison 513 and Clifford, 1987). However, higher-resolution Galileo image data imaging of 514 Ganymede revealed no unequivocal observation of lobate materials with an iden-515 tifiable source vent or any other identifiable morphology related to cryovolcanism 516 associated with dark material (Prockter et al, 2000). Candidate cryovolcanic units 517 identified from Voyager data at lower resolution on the basis of embayment and 518 texture instead appeared to be the result of fluidized impact ejecta (Pappalardo 519 et al, 2004) and dark smooth materials in topographic lows appeared to have 520 accumulated by downslope movement of loose material, instead of by some cryo-521 volcanic mechanism (Prockter et al, 1998). Higher-resolution Galileo image data of 522 groove lanes on Ganymede have also lacked clear morphological evidence for flow 523 fronts, source vents, embayment relationships, or any other evidence suggestive 524 of cryovolcanic emplacement. However, indirect evidence for volcanic resurfacing 525 has been identified in the form of small isolated caldera-like features (Lucchita, 526 1980; Schenk and Moore, 1995; Spaun et al, 2001) and smooth, topographically 527 low bright lanes (Schenk et al, 2001). 528

For Titan, the only ocean world with a dense atmosphere, evidence of out-529 gassing comes from the presence of <sup>40</sup>Ar in Titan's atmosphere (Niemann et al. 530 2005; Waite et al, 2005; Atreya et al, 2006) because <sup>40</sup>Ar is produced by the decay 531 of  ${}^{40}$ K that is initially contained in the silicate fraction. The amount of  ${}^{40}$ Ar in 532 Titan's atmosphere was measured by the Gas Chromatograph Mass Spectrome-533 ter (GCMS) onboard the Huygens probe in 2005 (Niemann et al, 2005) and by 534 the Cassini Ion and Neutral Mass Spectrometer (INMS) (Waite et al, 2005). The 535 value was revised to 3.39 ( $\pm 0.12$ )  $\times 10^{-5}$  mole fraction by Niemann et al (2010). 536 Depending on the elementary composition of the silicate fraction, the outgassing 537 corresponds to 5 to 20% of the total amount of  $^{40}$ Ar produced by the decay of 538 <sup>40</sup>K. Another clue for the existence of exchange process comes from the presence 539

of methane in Titan's atmosphere because methane is destroyed by photolysis. 540 Current models (Wilson and Atreya, 2000; Bézard et al, 2014) suggest that the 541 present amount of methane would disappear in less than 30 Myr, which is a short 542 time relative to geological timescales. Therefore, methane has to be resupplied into 543 the atmosphere, and endogenic (e.g., cyrovolcanic) processes have been proposed 544 as a possible process (Tobie et al, 2006). Potential cryovolcanic features on Titan 545 are relatively young, not widely distributed across the surface, and include flow 546 fields near Hotei Arcus, Tui Regio, and Ganesa Macula (see Jaumann et al (2009) 547 for a review). 548

#### 549 2.4 Plume Processes

As described in Section 2.2, there are tectonic processes on Enceladus and Europa that can provide potential (in the case of Europa) or actual (in the case of Enceladus) conduits for ice-ocean exchange relating to plume activity.

For Enceladus, approximately 100 supersonic jets of gas and ice grains have 553 been observed to erupt from the four SPT tiger stripes to form a large plume 554 towering above the south pole (Spahn et al, 2006; Porco et al, 2006; Hansen et al, 555 2008; Porco et al, 2014; Spitale et al, 2015). Observed plume intensities vary be-556 tween 100 kg/s and 1000 kg/s of water vapour, with an average of about 200 kg/s, 557 escaping into the plume (Hansen et al, 2011, 2017). The vapour redeposits onto the 558 vent's ice walls or condenses to tiny ice grains (e.g., Ingersoll and Pankine, 2010; 559 Schmidt et al, 2008; Yeoh et al, 2015), and a substantial part of the ice grains 560 appear to be frozen ocean spray entrained in the flow that might directly sample 561 the composition of the ocean (Postberg et al, 2009, 2011). Estimates for the gas to 562 ice ratio in the plume vary greatly, although recent estimates suggest an average 563 value of  $\sim 10$  (Kempf et al, 2018; Postberg et al, 2018a). While the ejection speeds 564 for plume vapour are generally above Enceladus' escape speed (Goldstein et al, 565 2018), only a fraction of the ice grains escape the moon's gravity to form Saturn's 566 E ring (Kempf et al, 2018) and a greater part falls back to form surface deposits 567 (Scipioni et al, 2017; Southworth et al, 2019). 568

The jets and plume are temporally and spatially variable. Jets appear to turn 569 on and off on typical time scales of years, indicating occasional opening / sealing of 570 certain ice vents (Nimmo et al, 2014), and systematic variations observed across the 571 fissures suggest trends in the composition of the plume material and/or variations 572 in the plumbing connecting these reservoirs to the surface (Hedman et al, 2018). 573 In contrast, plume activity is coupled most prominently to the moon's orbital 574 period, with brightness variations on the order of years as well (Hedman et al, 575 2013; Nimmo et al, 2014; Ingersoll and Ewald, 2017); variations in the integrated 576 emitted gas flux over time seem to be milder (Hansen et al. 2017; Teolis et al. 577 2017). 578

The detection of silica nano particles (Hsu et al, 2015), salts, and large organic molecules in the erupted ice grains (Postberg et al, 2009, 2011, 2018b) in combination with MH<sub>4</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> measured in the plume (Waite et al, 2017) suggests that material originating from the moon's rocky core enters the plume. This indicates that the tiger stripe fractures penetrate the entire thickness of the ice shell, tapping into the global ocean underneath (Porco et al, 2006; Kite and Rubin, 2016; Spencer et al, 2018). From buoyancy arguments, water should fill large parts

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of these fractures and the level of neutral buoyancy should be situated at  $\sim 90\%$ 586 of the distance from the ocean to the moon's surface, above which the fractures 587 would be vapor-filled. With an apparent ice shell thickness of not more than 5 km 588 (e.g., Čadek et al, 2019), it seems plausible that liquid water could be situated at 589 only a few hundred meters depth within the fractures with some variability ( $\sim 10s$ 590 of meters) due to flushing from tidal flexing of the crust (Kite and Rubin, 2016). 591 Cassini measurements constrain the outlet diameters to be < 10 m (Goguen et al, 592 2013), and models suggest that the average width of cracks narrows to less than 593 a few 10s of centimeters above the water surface (Schmidt et al, 2008; Postberg 594 et al, 2011; Nakajima and Ingersoll, 2016) and is on the order of 1 m for the water 595 filled portion (Kite and Rubin, 2016; Spencer et al, 2018). 596



Fig. 4 Schematic of the formation of ice grains from heterogeneous nucleation (not to scale). (a) Ascending gas bubbles in the ocean efficiently transport organic material into water-filled cracks in the south polar ice crust. (b) Organics ultimately concentrate in a thin organic layer on top of the water table inside the icy vents. When gas bubbles burst, they form aerosols made of insoluble organic material that later serve as efficient condensation cores for the production of an icy crust from water vapor, thereby forming organic-rich particles. Another effect of the bubble bursting is that larger, pure saltwater droplets form, which freeze and are later detected as salt-rich ice particles in the plume and the E ring. The figure implies the parallel formation of both organic and saltwater spray, but their formation could actually be separated in space (e.g., at different tiger stripe cracks) or time (e.g., dependent on the varying tidal stresses). From Postberg et al (2018b).

The mechanical and thermodynamic driver of the plume is evaporation of ocean water from the water surface inside back-pressured ice vents (Spencer et al, 2018). There, temperatures and pressures are close to the triple point of water, which allows water to evaporate efficiently. Together with volatile gases emerging from depth or exsolving from the ocean water, vapor is quickly accelerated to supersonic speeds (Hansen et al, 2008) by the pressure gradient to nearby open space (Goldstein et al, 2018). During this ascend, the gases cool substantially and, depending on their composition, will partially condense onto walls and into ice grains (Waite
et al, 2017; Bouquet et al, 2019; Khawaja et al, 2019). Almost pure water ice grains
and most of the likewise salt poor, but organic-bearing grains are thought to form
in this way from supersaturated vapor inside (Schmidt et al, 2008; Postberg et al,
2009) and at the outlets (Yeoh et al, 2015) of ice vents. The majority of ice grains
in the plume are in a crystalline state (Dhingra et al, 2017), indicative of formation
temperatures above 135 K.

The apparent heterogeneity of ice grain compositions strongly argues for differ-611 ent grain formation mechanisms (Fig. 4). Salty ice grains are thought to be frozen 612 ocean spray generated when bubbles burst at the water surface inside the vertical 613 cracks (Postberg et al, 2009, 2011). These bubbles might be formed from either 614 mildly boiling water close to its triple point or upwelling volatile gases (e.g.,  $CO_2$ , 615 CH<sub>4</sub>, or H<sub>2</sub>). Consequently, these grains seem to be samples of oceanic near-surface 616 waters (Postberg et al, 2009). A similar mechanism has been proposed to form ice 617 grains containing complex organic substances in high concentrations. In analogy 618 to similar processes on Earth's oceans (e.g., Wilson et al, 2015), this solid organic 619 material might have accumulated as part of an organic film near the oceanic sur-620 face. Upon bubble bursting, these organics become aerosolized and then serve as 621 condensation cores to form a water ice crust that is entrained in the vapor flow 622 rising through Enceladus' ice vents (Postberg et al, 2018b). 623

For Europa, the first tentative telescopic detection of a plume occurred dur-624 ing a Hubble Space Telescope observation in December 2012. Localized ultraviolet 625 line emission of hydrogen and oxygen were attributed as dissociative products of 626 H<sub>2</sub>O vapor (Roth et al, 2014). Using off-limb observations while absorbing back-627 ground light during Europa transits in front of Jupiter, Sparks et al (2016, 2017) 628 twice found indications for a plume at identical positions by. However, both au-629 thors also report non-detections on several occasions, indicating either sporadic 630 or at least highly variable activity. In a reanalysis of *Galileo* magnetometer data 631 recorded below 400 km altitude during the space crafts closest Europa flyby, Jia 632 et al (2018) reported anomalies consistent with plume activity close to the position 633 of the Sparks et al (2016, 2017) observations. Each of the individual observations 634 does not provide unequivocal proof of a plume. However, the sum of all obser-635 vations with three different techniques, argue strongly for some level of at least 636 intermittent venting activity. The origin of these putative plumes, however, re-637 mains an open question. Although a similar interpretation has been invoked for 638 Europa as Enceladus (Southworth et al, 2015), the absence of correlation with true 639 anomaly (Sparks et al, 2017) and the much larger gravity on Europa challenge this 640 interpretation. 641

#### 642 2.5 Chaos Terrain

A terrain unique to Europa, and covering approximately a quarter of its surface, is termed Chaos. Chaotic terrain is formed by disruption of the preexisting surface into isolated plates, coupled with the development of lumpy matrix material between the plates. Models for the formation of chaotic terrain that have been proposed in the literature fall into 1 of 5 categories – melt-through, diapirism, brine mobilization, sill injection, or impact – and are reviewed in Collins and Nimmo (2009). The melt-through model for chaos formation was born from the visible sim-

ilarity of plates in chaotic terrain to terrestrial pack ice (Carr et al, 1998; Greeley 650 et al, 1998). In this model, a heat source at the base of the icy shell facilitates melt-651 ing of the overlying ice, exposing the ocean below, and leading to the formation 652 of plates equivalent to icebergs that float in a matrix of refrozen ocean material 653 (Greenberg et al, 1999; Thomson and Delaney, 2001). The diapirism model for 654 chaos formation proposes that the morphology of chaotic terrain and pits, spots, 655 and domes (collectively termed lenticulae) represents the surface expression of ris-656 ing diapirs (Pappalardo et al, 1998; Rathbun et al, 1998; Figueredo et al, 2002; 657 Mével and Mercier, 2007). Such diapirs would develop due to either thermal or 658 compositional buoyancy within the ice shell (Barr and Showman, 2009). In an-659 other model of chaos formation, Head and Pappalardo (1999) and Collins et al 660 (2000) suggest that the formation of matrix material arises from partial melting of 661 non-water-ice, low-melting-point materials and the mobilization of resulting briny 662 liquids within the ice shell. Another way to deliver liquid into the icy shell of 663 Europa is to inject it directly from the ocean. In this formation model, sills of 664 melt form within Europa's icy shell from pressurized water injected from frac-665 tures that penetrate its base (Crawford and Stevenson, 1988; Collins et al, 2000; 666 Manga and Wang, 2007). Here, ice-water interactions and freeze out of the liquid 667 sill describe the unique morphological and topographic characteristics of chaos on 668 Europa (Schmidt et al, 2011). Finally, morphological similarities between chaotic 669 terrain on Europa and terrestrial explosion craters (Billings and Kattenhorn, 2003) 670 have led to the suggestion of an impact origin for the formation of chaos (Cox et al, 671 2008; Cox and Bauer, 2015). In this model, floating plates of the original ice sur-672 face are preserved in a slushy matrix, filling an irregular hole in the ice left by the 673

674 explosion crater.

#### <sup>675</sup> 3 Ice Shell Dynamics and Exchange Processes

Exchange processes between the deep ocean and the surface can provide key in-676 formation about the chemistry and organic content of the ocean, including the 677 chemical processes at work at the rocky core/ocean interface, as has been demon-678 strated for Enceladus. Similarly important is assessing the downward transfer from 679 the surface to the ocean since surface material may provide compounds, such as 680 oxidants, required to maintain the chemical disequilibrium between the ocean and 681 possible hydrothermal fluids in the rocky core, a process that seems required for life 682 (Hand et al, 2007). Exchange between the ocean and the surface involves transport 683 through the icy shell. 684

#### 685 3.1 Thermal State of the Ice Shell

The thickness of the outer ice shell is the principal characteristic that influences potential exchanges between the interior and the surface (Chyba and Phillips, 2002). It is controlled by thermal equilibrium between the shell and the subsurface ocean, which depends on how the energy from internal heating (radiogenic and/or tidal) is transported through the ice shell – both conduction and subsolidus convection are suitable heat transport mechanisms (e.g., Spohn and Schubert, 2003; Mitri and Showman, 2005; Tobie et al, 2006). The temperature profile is quite different between a conductive (colder) and a convective (warmer) shell. Moreover, various studies have shown that the convective processes can be separated into different regimes (e.g., Moresi and Solomatov, 1995). In the stagnant lid regime, a thick conductive lid is present on top of the convective layer which effectively slows down the heat transfer and possibly limits the exchange between the ocean and the surface, while in the mobile lid regime, which represents plate tectonics, the lid is thinner and more heat and/or material can be transferred (Fig. 5a).



**Fig. 5** (a) Conductive (black) and convective thermal profiles in the stagnant (red) or mobile (blue) regime in the ice shell and (b) occurrence of convection (stationary or time-dependent) as a function of ice shell thickness and bottom viscosity in the stagnant lid regime (McKinnon, 2006).

Subsolidus convection is an efficient way to transport material between the deep 700 interior and the surface. On Earth, this process is coupled with plate tectonics that 701 leads to the major tectonic features such as mid-ocean ridges, subduction zones, 702 and transform faults. It also produces most of the volcanism. Terrestrial convection 703 is also characterized by the presence of hot plumes that form at a hot thermal 704 boundary layer or are triggered by the presence of partial melt (Ogawa, 2014). 705 Although it is controlled by the same physical processes, thermal convection in icy 706 shells differs significantly from terrestrial mantle convection for several reasons. 707 First, silicate mantles are heated from within by radiogenic decay while icy mantles 708 are mostly heated from below and, in some cases, from within by tidal heating. 709 Second, internal melting creates a negative buoyancy due to the high density of 710 liquid water relative to ice, while in silicate mantles, it favors the rise of hot 711 thermal upwellings. Third, in the case of an icy crust above an internal ocean, 712 the bottom interface is not fixed as for silicate mantles but evolves depending on 713 crystallization/melting processes. 714

Thermal evolution models have provided some constraints on the ice shell thickness of ocean worlds in our solar system although more information is needed to obtain accurate present-day estimates. According to models, the outer ice shells can undergo large thickness variations during their evolution (Hussmann et al, 2002; Sotin et al, 2009; Mitri et al, 2010) and potentially produce multiple transitions between conductive and convective states (Mitri and Showman, 2005). The cou<sup>721</sup> pling between the thermal and orbital evolution of Europa and Ganymede together
 <sup>722</sup> with Io in the Laplace resonance could have produced multiple heat pulse events,

<sup>723</sup> potentially producing tectonic activity such as grooved terrains on Ganymede and

internal melting in the crusts (Showman and Malhotra, 1997; Bland et al, 2009).
For most satellites, except probably Enceladus (Choblet et al, 2017a), tidal heat-

<sup>726</sup> ing mainly occurs in the ice shell, where the visco-elastic timescale can be of the
<sup>727</sup> order of the orbital period of the tidal forcing (Tobie et al, 2003; Sotin et al,
<sup>728</sup> 2009; Beuthe, 2013). Tidal heating in thin ice shells is larger at the poles than at
<sup>729</sup> equatorial regions by a factor of about four (Tobie et al, 2003; Beuthe, 2013) and

also strongly depends on regional shell structure (e.g., the presence of faults) and
thickness variations, since the tidal stress is approximately inversely proportional
to the local shell thickness (Souček et al, 2016; Běhounková et al, 2017; Beuthe,

<sup>733</sup> 2018; Souček et al, 2019).

734 Although the question of thickness and thermal state of the ice shells is not satisfactorily resolved, various models of solid state convection have been devel-735 oped. Consolmagno and Lewis (1978) initiated these studies, and more realistic 736 models have subsequently been developed (e.g., Deschamps and Sotin, 2000; To-737 bie et al. 2003; Barr and Pappalardo, 2005; Mitri and Showman, 2005; Barr and 738 McKinnon, 2007; Han and Showman, 2010; Běhounková et al. 2015; Weller et al. 739 2019) once it was discovered that taking into account the variability of viscosity 740 was key to a good description of heat transfer by convection (Davaille and Jaupart, 741 1993; Moresi and Solomatov, 1995). The vigor of convection is measured through 742 the non-dimensional Rayleigh number with the two main parameters being the 743 ice shell thickness and the ice viscosity. Heat transfer by convection can become 744 more efficient than by conduction as the layer thickens because the conductive 745 heat flux is inversely proportional to the thickness of the layer. The critical value 746 of the thickness at which convection starts has been investigated by a number of 747 studies that included different complexities in the viscosity laws applicable to ice 748 (e.g., Deschamps and Sotin, 2000; Mitri and Showman, 2005; Barr and McKinnon, 749 2007) and showed that the likelihood of subsolidus convection in the icy shells of 750 ocean worlds depends strongly on the deformation properties of ice. 751

The creep behavior of ice I has been studied in laboratory (e.g., Durham and 752 Stern, 2001; Goldsby and Kohlstedt, 2001; De La Chapelle et al, 1999) and ob-753 served on terrestrial glaciers (e.g., Hudleston, 2015). Several mechanisms can occur 754 to accommodate the deformation rate of ice: propagation of dislocations, diffusion, 755 grain boundary sliding, and basal slip, each of them dominating in certain condi-756 tions. The deformation rate can be expressed as a combination of these different 757 processes (Goldsby and Kohlstedt, 2001) and depends on pressure (P), temper-758 ature (T), shear stress ( $\tau$ ), and grain size (d), which also depends on the P-T- $\tau$ 759 conditions. Although each process has been well characterized, the grain size is 760 poorly constrained for icy moons (Barr and McKinnon, 2007). Yet its knowledge 761 is crucial to determine the icy shells' thermal state since the smaller the grain 762 size, the lower the value of viscosity and thus the thinner the layer at the onset 763 of convection. Barr and McKinnon (2007) suggest that the minimum thickness for 764 convection to initiate in large ocean worlds such as Ganymede would be between 35 765 and 66 km for grain sizes of 3 to 8 mm, respectively. In a study applied to Callisto, 766 McKinnon (2006) proposes maps showing the conditions for convection to exist 767 as a function of the viscosity at the ice/ocean interface and the thickness of the 768 ice layer (Fig. 5b). Although the domain for convection seems large and suggests 769

a) Heat flux variations



b) Phase changes



c) Surface deformation



Fig. 6 Sketch of the processes occurring at the ice/water interface and their consequences for the ice shell evolution (Kvorka et al, 2018). (a) The normal component of heat flux is not generally continuous at a phase interface. Melting occurs in regions where heat flux from the ocean is larger than heat flux in the ice shell. The opposite situation leads to crystallization. (b) In regions of melting, the ice shell loses mass and its thickness decreases. Crystallization is accompanied by ice mass gain and ice shell thickening. Both processes tend to restore the heat flux balance at the boundary. (c) Undulations of the ice/water interface generate pressure gradients that induce flows in the ice shell. These flows deform the upper boundary of the shell. Depressions develop above the regions of melting, while the surface tends to rise above the regions of crystallizations.

that convection would be dominant for thicknesses larger than 20 km, note that 770 the value of the corresponding grain size is less than 1 mm, which is more than 771 on order of magnitude smaller than the values predicted in Barr and McKinnon 772 (2007). Note also that the grain size evolution model predicts an increase in grain 773 size after convection starts, leading to increased viscosity and less vigorous convec-774 tion. Finally, the presence of impurities would affect the grain size of ice as it has 775 been observed and modeled in cold ice sheets on the Earth (Durand et al, 2006). 776

Convection processes in the icy crust may have been intermittent on Ganymede, 777

Titan (Tobie et al, 2005, 2006), Europa (Hussmann et al, 2002), and Enceladus 778 (Barr, 2008), and a definite answer has to await measurements by future missions. 779

3.2 Global Dynamics of the Ice Shell 780

Long-wavelength topography and gravity can be used to constrain the lateral vari-781 ations in shell thickness. Its amplitude and pattern provide insights on the thermal 782 state and global dynamics of the ice shell as well as on the coupling with the un-783 derlying ocean (e.g., Nimmo et al, 2011). In combination with heat production 784 within the ice shell, strong heat flux anomalies coming from the seafloor and heat 785 flux patterns due to oceanic circulation can lead to a modulation of the ice/ocean 786 interface. The 3D structure of the ice shell and its global dynamics thus result from 787 a balance between the heat transfer through the ice shell, melting/crystallization 788 processes at the base and within the ice shell, and lateral ice flow (Cadek et al, 789 2017; Kvorka et al, 2018)(Fig. 6). 790

From the inversion of the topography and gravity data collected by Cassini, 791 maps of ice shell thickness have been inferred by several studies on Titan (Lefevre 792

et al, 2014; Mitri et al, 2014; Kvorka et al, 2018) and Enceladus (Cadek et al, 793 2016, 2019; Beuthe et al, 2016; Hemingway and Mittal, 2019). On Titan, the long-794 wavelength topography is associated with small gravity anomalies indicating a 795 high degree of compensation (e.g., Durante et al, 2019). The observed topography, 796 characterized by relatively small amplitudes (about 1 km peak to peak) and an 797 anomalous equatorial bulge (the poles are about 300 m lower than the equator) 798 can be explained either by a deflection of the ocean/ice interface (Nimmo and 799 Bills, 2010; Hemingway et al, 2013; Lefevre et al, 2014) or by density variations 800 in the upper crust, likely due to heavy hydrocarbon clathrates (Choukroun and 801 Sotin, 2012). Assuming that surface topography is due to ice/ocean interface de-802 flection, the inferred deflection amplitude  $(\pm 5 \text{ km})$  indicates a very slow ice flow 803 at the base of the ice shell. It also implies a conductive and highly viscous ice 804 shell above a relatively cold ocean (T < 250 K) (Lefevre et al, 2014; Kvorka et al, 805 2018). By modeling the shape evolution of Titan's ice shell including diffusive heat 806 transfer through the ice shell, heterogeneous tidal heating in the ice shell, heat flux 807 anomalies from the ocean and basal ice flow, Kvorka et al (2018) show that the 808 observed topography is not consistent with tidal heating pattern in the ice shell 809 and rather indicates heat flux anomalies in the ocean (Fig. 7a). The anomalous 810 topographic bulge would be consistent with lateral variations of ocean heat flux 811 on the order of 0.1-1 mW/m<sup>2</sup>, characterized by upwelling of warm water in polar 812 regions and downwelling of cold water at low latitudes (Kvorka et al, 2018). The 813 origin of this oceanic flow is unclear. It may be a natural flow for the present-day 814 ocean configuration or it may result from heat flux forcing from the base of the 815 ocean (Soderlund, 2019). 816



Fig. 7 Heat flux anomalies from the ocean derived from the ice shell thickness variations, assuming a conductive ice shell, on (a) Titan for a model including surface mass redistribution by erosion (Kvorka et al, 2018) and (b) Enceladus (Čadek et al, 2019).

Using a similar approach, Čadek et al (2019) estimated the heat flux anomalies 817 at the bottom of Enceladus' ice shell in order to explain the observed topography 818 (Tajeddine et al, 2017) and gravity (Iess et al, 2014). Compared to Titan, the ice 819 shell thickness variations are much larger, ranging from 5 km at the south pole to 820 35 km at the equator that are associated with heat flux anomalies about ten times 821 larger than on Titan (Fig. 7b). By modelling the ice flow driven by variations in 822 hydrostatic pressure on the ice/water interface, Cadek et al (2019) demonstrated 823 that Enceladus' ice shell is in a steady state, with melting located in polar regions 824 and crystallization occurring in the equatorial region. The observed pattern is 825

consistent with the heat flux pattern predicted by tidally-heated water flow in the porous core of Enceladus (Choblet et al, 2017a), likely modulated by oceanic flow

<sup>828</sup> (Soderlund, 2019).

The global shape data of Europa retrieved from *Galileo* limb profiles indicate 829 that, if variations exist, they should be relatively small, thus implying an efficient 830 ice flow at the base of the shell (Nimmo et al, 2007) or redistribution of topogra-831 phy through pressure-induced melting and freezing (Soderlund et al, 2014). The 832 absence of significant ice shell thickness variations does not imply that there is 833 no significant heat flow anomaly at the base of the ice shell. As shown by Cadek 834 et al (2017), any ice/ocean deflection relaxes much faster in Europa's conditions 835 than in Enceladus' case because of its larger size. For the same ice shell thickness 836 and viscosity structure, the relaxation rate is 100 times faster on Europa than 837 on Enceladus, requiring a large heat flux anomaly to build up significant long-838 wavelength topography. Ashkenazy et al (2018) modeled the global meridional ice 839 flow in Europa's ice shell due to pressure gradients associated to equator-to-pole 840 841 ice thickness variations. They show that the thickness variations barely exceed a few kilometers and are limited by ice flow and oceanic heat transport. 842

#### 843 3.3 Melt Transport

While the observations of plumes at Enceladus and Europa support the possibility 844 of liquids present within their ice shells, the physical processes leading to near-845 surface melting and liquids accumulation within the crust or their emplacement 846 on the surface are still subject to discussion. Generation of liquids within the 847 icy crust requires a heat source, such as tidal heating, and/or the presence of a 848 secondary phase depressing the melting point. Two geodynamical contexts have 849 been proposed for generation of melts by enhanced tidal heating inside the ice shell: 850 either in hot upwelling plumes as a result of thermally-reduced viscosity (e.g., Sotin 851 et al, 2002; Tobie et al, 2003; Běhounková et al, 2010) or along the faults due to 852 tidally-activated strike-slip motions (e.g., Gaidos and Nimmo, 2000; Nimmo and 853 Gaidos, 2002). Alternative sources of liquids would be a direct connection from 854 the subsurface ocean through water-filled cracks (Fig. 8a, Section 2.4) and impact 855 cratering (Fig. 8b, Section 2.1). 856

Contrary to the analogous setting on the Earth (silicate solids being denser 857 than their melts), the negative buoyancy of water with respect to ice I is often seen 858 as an obstacle to maintaining englacial water (Tobie et al, 2003; Kalousová et al, 859 2016). However, several possibilities have been proposed to overcome the negative 860 buoyancy of water (e.g., Fagents, 2003; Hammond et al, 2018): (i) volatiles such 861 as  $CO_2$ , CO, or  $SO_2$  may be exsolved in water thus significantly increasing the 862 fluid buoyancy, (ii) non-ice substances may be present in water or ice which will 863 modify the density contrast between the two phases - either by decreasing the fluid 864 density (e.g., NH<sub>3</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>) or by increasing the ice density (silicate particles, 865 clathrates), (iii) compaction and associated low permeability of ice that allows an 866 accumulation of melts within the shell, and (iv) partial freezing of a discrete liquid 867 reservoir will lead to its overpressurization, which may further promote cracking 868 and lead to water ascent. 869

Over long timescales, oceanic materials – either in the form of melt pockets or solid phase (salts, clathrate) – can be advected from the ice/ocean interface to the



c) Band formation on Ganymede or Europa due to lithospheric stretching



b)



Oceanic water excavated

by break-through cratering impact

Fig. 8 Four possible mechanisms leading to exchange between the subsurface ocean and the surface, which are mostly controlled by the ice shell thickness and the force acting on it : a) oceanic water injection and associated jet activity requiring relatively thin shells ( $\lesssim 5$  km) and strong tidal forces (after Postberg et al, 2018b); b) oceanic water excavation due to breakthrough cratering impact requiring ice shell thickness and impactor radius to be of comparable size (after Lunine et al, 2010); c) indirect transport of oceanic materials by upwelling ices from the ocean/ice interface to shallow depths, associated with band formation and lithospheric stretching, occurring in 10-20 km thick shells under the action of significant tectonic stress (after Howell and Pappalardo, 2018); d) ice melting at shallow depths by tidally-heated thermal plumes and potential percolation of meltwater to the ocean, occurring for relatively thick ice shells ( $\geq 25$  km) subjected to significant tidal forcing (after Sotin et al, 2002).

surface by thermal convection. The conductive lid separating the convective part 872 from the surface (Fig. 5a) acts as a barrier for chemical exchanges. Rupture of the 873 conductive lid, either by large-scale tectonic stresses and melt-induced collapse 874 (Fig. 8c-d), is required to allow the exposure of materials brought by convective 875 upwellings. Rupture of the lid provides also a mean to recycle surface materials 876 to the subsurface and potentially to advect them to the ocean (Kattenhorn and 877 Prockter, 2014; Johnson et al, 2017; Klaser et al, 2019). In numerical simulations 878 of thermal convection in icy shells, melting of water and its transport is often 879 completely neglected (e.g., Han and Showman, 2005, 2010) or highly simplified 880

(Běhounková et al, 2012). Some authors, however, have included water generation 881 and considered its dynamic effect on the ice flow (Tobie et al, 2003; Kalousová 882 et al, 2016). In these studies, the water content (porosity) is computed but the 883 ice is considered to be effectively impermeable to the interstitial water transport 884 (percolation) and water is thus simply advected by the flowing ice. These authors 885 found that the occurrence of a few percents of water leads to fast (with respect 886 to convection time scales) destabilization of the partially molten region, thus not 887 supporting the long term stability of liquid water bodies. Let us note however, 888 that only pure ice was considered and that the addition of salts may promote 889 the melting process while the addition of volatiles may improve the buoyancy of 890 the liquid. Alternatively, the water transport by interstitial percolation has been 891 modeled by using a two-phase mixture formalism by Kalousová et al (2014) for 892 Europa and Hammond et al (2018) for Triton. The drawback of these studies is that 893 they only consider a one-dimensional geometry and thus neglect water advection 894 by flowing ice (cf. above). The only simulations that took into account both water 895 transport mechanisms, i.e. advection by ice and interstitial percolation, have been 896 performed for the high-pressure ice layers of Ganymede (Kalousová et al, 2018; 897 Kalousová and Sotin, 2018) and Titan (Kalousová and Sotin, 2019). More details 898 can be found in Journaux et al (2019) (this issue). On the basis of the effect of 899 melt on the dynamics and structure of the high-pressure ice layer, one can predict 900 that a temperate layer (i.e. with temperature following the melting curve) would 901 be present at the icy crust/ocean interface but details on its characteristics must 902 await dedicated work. 903

Models have also been constructed to assess the possibility of cryolava ascent 904 on the surface of icy satellites. Manga and Wang (2007) found that overpressure 905 generated by freezing a few kilometers of ice is not sufficient for liquid water to 906 erupt on the surface of Europa, while it may be sufficient on smaller satellites such 907 as Enceladus. However, Quick and Marsh (2016) and Quick et al (2017) found 908 that cryolava may reach Europa's surface at temperatures as high as 250 K and 909 undergo rapid cooling to form cryovolcanic domes. Even if the liquids do not reach 910 the surface, they may be placed in the shallow subsurface where processes such as 911 impact cratering can transport the deposited material on the surface. 912

The presence of near-surface liquid reservoirs was proposed to explain some 913 ocean world surface morphologies in comparison with Earth-like processes. Michaut 914 and Manga (2014) and Manga and Michaut (2017) investigated thermo-mechanical 915 constraints on the emplacement and evolution of liquid water sills and proposed 916 that Europa's pits, domes, and small chaos morphology could result from the evo-917 lution of these sills located at depths of 1 to 5 kilometers. Moreover, they suggest 918 that the pits should be located above bodies of liquid water, which is in agreement 919 with Schmidt et al (2011) who proposed that Europa's chaos terrains form above 920 liquid water lenses  $\sim 3$  kilometers below the surface. Walker and Schmidt (2015) 921 investigated the effects of a subsurface liquid water body on the flexural response 922 of an ice shell and the resulting topography. Their results reproduce the observed 923 geology of Europa's chaos terrains as well as Enceladus' SPT, suggesting that they 924 both formed by the ice collapse above a liquid water body. Similarly, sills and dikes 925 have also been implicated for the formation of ridges on Europa (Dombard et al, 926 2013; Johnston and Montési, 2014; Craft et al, 2016). 927

#### <sup>928</sup> 4 Ocean Dynamics and Exchange Processes

Oceans are an essential component of the ice-ocean exchange process as the inter-929 mediary layer between the outer ice shell and the underlying mantle/high pressure 930 ice layer. Moreover, because the oceans are nearly inviscid and strong currents 931 are expected, heat and materials are transported relatively quickly across them. 932 Fluid motions within icy satellite oceans are driven by convection due to thermo-933 compositional density gradients, mechanical forcings (e.g., tides, libration, and 934 orbital precession), and magnetic forcing due to electromagnetic pumping. The 935 resulting flows will promote mixing within the bulk ocean, which will influence 936 the distribution of thermo-compositional gradients, especially along the seafloor 937 and ice-ocean interface, and potentially have important implications for the ice 938 shell and habitability. 939

#### 940 4.1 Convection

#### 941 4.1.1 Hydrothermal Plumes

The earliest efforts to understand ocean dynamics within icy worlds focused on 942 local circulation driven by hydrothermal plumes upwelling from the rocky interior 943 (Thomson and Delaney, 2001; Goodman et al, 2004). The goal of these efforts was 944 to explore connections between localized seafloor heating and geological features 945 on the surface of Europa's ice crust. Initial work in this area (Thomson and De-946 laney, 2001) argued that Coriolis forces would constrain the outward spread of 947 the turbulent buoyant plume, creating a narrow "chimney" of warm fluid which 948 could potentially deliver hydrothermal heat to a narrow patch of ice despite the 949 depth of the ocean, and speculated that they could form the 5-20 km diameter 950 lenticulae (Greenberg et al, 1999) or pits, domes, and spots (Pappalardo et al, 951 1998) commonly seen on Europa's surface. They further noted that these forces 952 would create anticyclonic (counter-clockwise in the northern hemisphere) currents 953 at the ice-water interface, which were consistent with the apparent motion of ice 954 rafts in the large Conamara Chaos (Spaun et al, 1998). 955

Later work based on theoretical scaling laws for point-source plumes (Fernando 956 et al, 1998), supplemented with laboratory tank experiments (Goodman et al, 957 2004) and numerical simulations (Goodman and Lenferink, 2012), demonstrated 958 that while the plumes would have a narrow aspect ratio, they would still be at least 959 20-50 km in diameter, far wider than the common sizes of pits, domes, and spots, 960 suggesting that these features were more likely created by internal ice dynamics. 961 However, the plume size was found to be compatible with the largest chaos regions 962 on Europa. Temperature anomalies were found to be very small (mK) and flow 963 velocities very weak (mm/s), making it unlikely that hydrothermal plumes would 964 have any direct mechanical effect on the overlying ice layer. Mantle heat transport 965 calculations by Lowell and DuBose (2005) also support the lack of melt-through 966 events by hydrothermal plumes. 967

More recent work by Farber and Goodman (2014) included a better treatment of planetary rotation in these plumes and studied their implications for astrobiology. In Earth's oceans, the horizontal component of the planetary rotation axis (perpendicular to gravity) can be ignored, but this approximation is not valid for

convection in deep icy world oceans. As a result, hydrothermal plumes should rise 972 parallel to the planetary rotation axis (i.e. diagonally), rather than vertically. This 973 would cause a plume's projection onto the ice surface to be an ellipse with the long 974 axis oriented toward the pole. Hydrothermal plumes are also astrobiologically sig-975 nificant, both in providing a route for metabolically significant molecules to move 976 from seafloor to surface, and for delivering potential biosignatures to the ice. Far-977 ber and Goodman (2014) also showed that tracer particles require thousands of 978 years to move from top to bottom of Europa's ocean. 979

One important caveat remains, however. Local convective plumes will rise through a background ocean whose properties are determined by the ocean composition and global circulation. Compositional modification of these results is discussed below, and global convective flows are discussed in Section 4.1.2.

The extent to which hydrothermal plumes will buoyantly rise depends on the 984 ocean composition. In a freshwater ocean, buoyancy of the plumes depends on its 985 temperature relative to the surrounding ocean water; since the warmer plumes are 986 less dense, they are expected to reach the ice-ocean interface. However, the thermal 987 expansion coefficient of water is negative between 0 and 3.98 °C (at 1 bar) such that 988 the maximum fluid density is reached below at a temperature above the freezing 989 point. As a result, the ocean would have a stable "stratosphere" beneath the ice-990 ocean interface that would prohibit further rising of the plume (Melosh et al, 991 2004). Increased pressure and ocean salinity move the temperature of maximum 992 density towards the freezing temperature, reducing this effect. These temperatures 993 coincide at pressures exceeding 27 MPa and salinities exceeding  $\sim 3 \text{ wt}\%$  for both 994 seawater and magnesium sulfate compositions (Feistel and Hagen, 1995; Melosh 995 et al, 2004; Vance and Brown, 2005). Further, considering a saline ocean, if the salt 996 content is larger near the seafloor due to interactions with the underlying mantle 997 or precipitates, its entrainment into the plumes would increase their density and 998 cause them to reach the point of neutral density before reaching the ice-ocean 999 interface (Vance and Brown, 2005). However, Travis et al (2012) argue that this 1000 initial salinity gradient would eventually become homogenized such that thermal 1001 buoyancy would regain dominance. 1002

#### 1003 4.1.2 Global Circulations

Heat flow from the seafloor combined with heat loss through the overlying ice 1004 shell is expected to drive thermal convection globally in the oceans, modulated by 1005 compositional buoyancy associated with salinity gradients that may enhance the 1006 vigor of convection (positive gradient) or have a stabilizing effect (negative gradi-1007 ent). The resulting fluid flows are governed by the Navier-Stokes equations where 1008 the most prominent forces are inertia, Coriolis, pressure gradient, and buoyancy, 1009 in combination with the ocean geometry and boundary conditions (see Taubner 1010 et al (2019), this issue). The hydrothermal plume studies above generally assume 1011 the ocean to be geostrophic, meaning a balance between the Coriolis and pres-1012 sure gradient forces that effectively organizes the convective flows into quasi-two-1013 dimensional structures that are aligned with the rotation axis, frequently called 1014 Taylor columns (Fig. 9a). On a global scale, non-linear stresses associated with 1015 these columns will drive an eastward jet at low latitudes with multiple, alternat-1016 ing jets towards the poles, reminiscent of the jets in Jupiter's atmosphere (Fig. 9b; 1017



Fig. 9 Flow structures, zonal flows, and temperature fields in convection models at a snapshot in time. Top row: Simulation with quasi-2D turbulence. Bottom row: Simulation with quasi-3D turbulence. Left column: axial vorticity isosurfaces,  $\omega_z = (\nabla \times \mathbf{u}) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{Z}}$ . Red (blue) indicates cyclonic (anticyclonic) circulations aligned with the vertical  $\hat{\mathbf{Z}}$  direction; the yellow sphere represents the seafloor. Middle column: zonal flows along the outer boundary; red (blue) indicates eastward (westward) flow. Right column: superadiabatic temperature fields below the outer boundary; red (blue) indicates warm (cool) fluid. Adapted from Soderlund et al (2014).

e.g., Heimpel et al, 2015; Soderlund et al, 2014). The ocean is warmest at high latitudes due to the efficiency of vertical convection columns there (Fig. 9c; Aurnou et al, 2008).

As convection becomes more vigorous, however, the Taylor columns break down 1021 and fluid flows become three-dimensionalized. Here, mixing of absolute angular 1022 momentum will instead drive a westward equatorial jet and eastward jets at high 1023 latitudes (Fig. 9d; e.g., Aurnou et al, 2007; Gastine et al, 2013). A large-scale 1024 meridional overturning circulation also develops with upwelling flow near the equa-1025 tor and downwelling flow at higher latitudes in each hemisphere (Fig. 9e; Soderlund 1026 et al, 2013). This circulation brings warm ocean water preferentially toward the 1027 ice-ocean interface at low latitudes ((Fig. 9f; Soderlund et al, 2014). 1028

The transition between these convective regimes is an active area of research 1029 subject to considerable debate (e.g., Gastine et al, 2016; Cheng et al, 2018). Al-1030 though the oceans are traditionally assumed to be strongly organized by rotation, 1031 Soderlund et al (2014) postulated that Europa's ocean is characterized by quasi-3D 1032 turbulence by estimating the convective regime following several potential scaling 1033 laws. These arguments are updated and extended to the oceans of Enceladus, Ti-1034 tan, and Ganymede in Soderlund (2019), who predicts thermal convection in the 1035 oceans of Europa, Ganymede, and Titan to all behave similarly (Fig. 9, bottom 1036 row). Rotation is predicted to play a more significant role for Enceladus. Consid-1037 ering the satellites collectively, peak zonal flow speeds are predicted to reach at 1038

least 10s of cm/s (up to meters per second) and mean (i.e. averaged over both
time and all longitudes) radial flows span the mm/s to cm/s range (Soderlund,
2019).

Complementary to the formation of individual chaos features through hy-1042 drothermal plumes, global convection models have focused the distribution of 1043 chaos terrains across Europa. Soderlund et al (2014) hypothesized that the low 1044 latitude enhancement of ocean heating promotes the formation of these terrains 1045 through increased melting of the ice shell and subsequent accretion of relatively 1046 pure marine ice. Considering the other satellites, heat flux anomalies from the 1047 ocean derived recently for Enceladus (Cadek et al, 2019) and Titan (Kvorka et al, 1048 2018) provide useful constraints for models of these oceans (see Fig. 7). The mod-1049 els of Soderlund (2019) are consistent with these heat flow patterns only if salinity 1050 effects are taken into account. However, the distribution of heating from the un-1051 derlying mantle/high pressure ice layer may be spatially heterogeneous (Travis 1052 et al, 2012; Choblet et al, 2017a,b; Kalousová et al, 2018) and these effects have 1053 not yet been taken into account. 1054

Ocean composition and its thermodynamic properties may have a significant 1055 impact on global circulations due to the presence of a stable stratosphere if the 1056 thermal expansion coefficient is negative (Melosh et al, 2004) or if salinity gra-1057 dients are maintained across the ocean. If salinity increases towards the seafloor, 1058 the thermal and compositional gradients oppose each other and double-diffusive 1059 convection may be expected (Vance and Brown, 2005; Bouffard et al, 2017) with 1060 layering that can evolve into a 'staircase' configuration with well-mixed layers 1061 that are characterized by steps in salinity and temperature (e.g., Schmitt, 1994). 1062 Conversely, if salinity increases toward the ice-ocean interface, both thermal and 1063 compositional gradients are unstable, leading to more vigorous convection. Melting 1064 and freezing along the ice-ocean interface will also lead to regions that are locally 1065 enhanced with fresher (i.e. stably stratified) and saltier (i.e. unstably stratified) 1066 water, respectively, that may drive additional circulations (Jansen, 2016; Ashke-1067 nazy et al, 2018; Zhu et al, 2017). Moreover, if heterogeneous melting/freezing 1068 leads to large-scale topographic variations along the ice-ocean interface, they may 1069 also impact the characteristics of convection and promote mechanically driven 1070 flows (see Section 4.2). 1071

<sup>1072</sup> 4.2 Mechanical Forcings

The icy satellites are tidally locked, meaning that their rotational periods equal their orbital periods. This results in the moons having triaxial ellipsoid shapes with their longer axes pointing towards the planet. If the moons' orbits were perfectly circular and their rotational axis aligned with their orbital axis, there would not be any mechanical forcing. However, their orbits are eccentric and their rotational axes are tilted with respect to their orbital axes, resulting in time-changing tidal bulges, librations, and precessions (Fig. 10) that can drive ocean currents.

A common approach for studying ocean tides is to use the Laplace Tidal Equations (LTE) that control the barotropic ocean response (Hendershott, 1981). The LTE assume a shallow ocean of constant density, and radial (vertical) ocean currents are considered to be negligible with respect to horizontal currents such that the problem becomes 2D. The resulting equations, which allow for surface gravity



Fig. 10 (a) A moon's eccentric orbit, where the equilibrium tidal bulge is indicated in blue and the 0° meridian is marked with a red line. Note the change of the tidal bulge amplitude and the longitudinal libration of the subplanet point. (b) A moon's rotation axes, where the moon rotates around its rotational axis with angular velocity  $\Omega_{\mathbf{R}}$  and precesses with angular velocity  $\Omega_{\mathbf{P}}$ , separated by the moon's obliquity  $\theta_o$ .

waves and planetary Rossby waves (e.g., Longuet-Higgins, 1968), have been used 1085 to study the response of an ice-free ocean of constant thickness (e.g., Tyler, 2008, 1086 2009; Chen et al, 2014; Hay and Matsuyama, 2017). The ocean response highly 1087 depends on the surface gravity wave speed. For thick oceans, the surface gravity 1088 wave speed is high, the ocean quickly adjusts to the perturbing tidal potential, and 1089 its response is mainly given by the equilibrium tide; this is the case of tides raised 1090 by a satellite's eccentricity (Fig. 11a. However, a high surface gravity wave speed 1091 does not hamper the propagation of tangentially non-divergent Rossby waves as 1092 they do not involve up and down motions (Fig. 11b). 1093

Obliquity of the satellite can excite planetary Rossby waves of sufficient am-1094 plitude to maintain a liquid ocean in Europa (Tyler, 2014), but is insufficient to 1095 prevent Enceladus' ocean from freezing (e.g., Chen and Nimmo, 2011; Matsuyama, 1096 2014). For thin oceans, gravity wave resonances can also occur. Nevertheless, char-1097 acteristic ocean thicknesses for which these resonances occur are far from those 1098 inferred from observations; as an example, the thickest ocean for which a resonance 1099 occurs in Enceladus is around 350 m. If an ocean eventually begins to freeze out, 1100 it will necessarily go through resonant states where enhanced heat production pre-1101 vents further freezing. Recently, Beuthe (2016); Matsuyama et al (2018); Hay and 1102 Matsuyama (2019) considered the effect of the overlying ice layer and showed that 1103 obliquity-forced dissipation is enhanced but the eccentricity tide is significantly 1104 dampened in satellites with high effective rigidity (Enceladus) and enhanced in 1105 satellites with low effective rigidity (Ganymede, Europa, Titan). 1106

The LTE hold as long as the ratio of the characteristic vertical and horizontal length scales is small (Miles, 1974). However, this may not be sufficiently accurate for icy satellite oceans. Using the ocean thickness and body's radius as a measure of vertical and horizontal length scales, higher ratios are obtained for Europa and Enceladus than for Earth ( $\sim 0.06$  and  $\sim 0.15$  versus  $\sim 0.001$ ), suggesting that 3Deffects are relevant in the icy moons. Without the shallow water approximation, internal inertial waves can be excited. These waves have properties markedly different from shallow water waves. Upon reflection, an internal wave packet can change its wavelength. Depending on the ocean geometry, this can lead to the focusing of energy along internal shear layers (e.g., Rieutord et al, 2011; Maas, 2005).

Recently, Rovira-Navarro et al (2019) used the linearized Navier-Stokes equa-1117 tions to study the three dimensional response of an unstratified ocean of constant 1118 thickness to tidal forcing. They observed patterns of periodic inertial waves that 1119 take energy from the global tidal forcing and focus it along internal viscous shear 1120 layers that propagate in the ocean (see Fig. 11c). These shear layers fluid flows can 1121 have an amplitude of a few cm/s, but the dissipation due to inertial waves in an 1122 1123 ocean of constant thickness is not sufficient to prevent an Europan or Enceladan 1124 ocean from freezing. Rekier et al (2019) extended this work to study the excitation of inertial waves by Enceladus' libration and concluded that this mechanism 1125 generates more dissipation than tidal forcing. 1126

Rovira-Navarro et al (2019): Rekier et al (2019) ignored the advection terms in 1127 the Navier-Stokes equations which otherwise can result in flow instabilities and the 1128 development of turbulence. Flow instabilities in spherical and ellipsoidal containers 1129 have been widely studied (e.g., Malkus, 1994; Kerswell and Malkus, 1998; Rieu-1130 tord, 2004). In a librating sphere, the viscous boundary layer at the solid-liquid 1131 interface can become unstable and break down to small scale turbulence. Wilson 1132 and Kerswell (2018) estimated the amount of tidal dissipation due to boundary 1133 layer instabilities and suggested that it should be potent enough to explain Ence-1134 ladus' heat flux. If the container is ellipsoidal, the interaction of inertial waves 1135 with the mean-flow excited by libration, precession, or tides can lead to the well-1136 known elliptical instability, which also results in a turbulent flow regime similar 1137 to that shown in Fig. 11d (e.g., Kerswell, 2002; Le Bars et al, 2015). Experimen-1138 tal and numerical work shows that Enceladus and Europa are likely unstable to 1139 libration-driven elliptic instability, while Titan, Ganymede and Callisto are prob-1140 ably not (Grannan et al, 2014, 2017; Lemasquerier et al, 2017). So far, ocean 1141 currents excited by mechanical forcing and convection (Section 4.1.2) have been 1142 studied separately. The interaction of mechanically driven and convective currents 1143 requires further attention. 1144

The previous discussion assumes the ocean to be unstratified and contained 1145 within ellipsoidal or spherical shells devoid of topographical features. On Earth, 1146 stratification and ocean topography play a crucial role in shaping the ocean's 1147 response to tides by controlling the barotropic ocean response and the conversion 1148 of the barotropic tide to the (internal) baroclinic tide (Munk, 1997; Egbert and 1149 Ray, 2000). In icy ocean worlds, we expect the ocean floor and the basal ice shell 1150 topography to deviate from the idealized shapes explored so far in mechanically 1151 driven flow studies. For instance, Enceladus' ice shell thickness varies from  $\sim 5$  km 1152 at the south pole to  $\sim 30$  km at the equator (Section 1.2). Additionally, under 1153 certain circumstances a subsurface ocean might be stratified (Section 4.1.2). The 1154 study of mechanically-excited flows for complex ocean geometries and stratified 1155 subsurface oceans is an exciting topic for future research. 1156

32



Fig. 11 Characteristic flow fields for mechanical forcings. Flow field and surface displacements excited in Europa by the (a) eccentricity and (b) obliquity tide. The ocean is assumed to be 80 km and covered by a 20 km thick ice shell. Overlaid are contours corresponding to the equilibrium tide. The flow pattern propagates towards the east and west for the eccentricity and obliquity tides, respectively. Credit: M. Rovira-Navarro. (c) Internal waves excited by the eccentricity tide in an ice-free 30 (185) km thick Enceladan (Europan) ocean; the left and right quadrants respectively show the amplitude of kinetic energy and viscous dissipation. A logarithmic non-dimensional scale is used for both quantities with the maximum kinetic and viscous energy corresponding to 4.7 (0.65) J/m<sup>3</sup> and 0.50 (0.026)  $\mu$ W/m<sup>3</sup> for Enceladus (Europa), respectively (Rovira-Navarro et al, 2019). (d) Turbulent flow regime attained due to the libration-driven elliptical instability, where the vertical component of the non-dimensional velocity ( $u_z$ ) is shown. For more details, see Lemasquerier et al (2017).

#### 1157 4.3 Magnetic Forcing

Jupiter's magnetic field is offset by  $\sim 10^{\circ}$  with respect to the orbital plane of 1158 the Galilean satellites. As a result, the satellites experience a time-varying mag-1159 netic field that induces electrical currents in the ocean. If the phases of the Jo-1160 vian magnetic field and the oceanic induced magnetic field are not aligned, their 1161 offset could generate a Lorentz force that drives a retrograde jet and weaker up-1162 welling/downwelling motions at low latitudes (Gissinger and Petitdemange, 2019). 1163 Mean flow speeds of the equatorial jet are expected to reach a few cm/s in Europa's 1164 ocean, reducing to a few mm/s for Ganymede and < 1 mm/s for Callisto where 1165 the Jovian magnetic field is weaker. This process is not expected to be significant 1166 for the Saturnian satellites due to the planet's nearly axisymmetric magnetic field. 1167 Magnetic pumping leads to Ohmic dissipation within the oceans of  $\lesssim 10^8$  W (at 1168

Europa), which is several orders of magnitude weaker than both radiogenic and tidal heating. However, the dissipation may still be significant if it is spatially concentrated at high latitudes in a thin layer below the ice-ocean interface due to the skin effect (Gissinger and Petitdemange, 2019). Moreover, because the zonal jet is characterized only by retrograde flow, it may contribute to the reorientation of Europa's ice shell (i.e. non-synchronous rotation) and the associated formation of lineaments (e.g., Helfenstein and Parmentier, 1985).

#### 1176 **5 Terrestrial Analogs**

While a great amount of the work on ocean worlds has focused on geologic processes analogous to those seen within the solid Earth, studies of ice and ocean processes on Earth are equally important for understanding physical and biological processes on these moons. Here, we will show how analogs for the freezing and geochemical properties of planetary ice shells can draw from knowledge of sea ice and marine ice on Earth (e.g., Buffo, 2019) as well as models of Snowball Earth (e.g., Ashkenazy et al, 2018).

#### 1184 5.1 Terrestrial Ice-Ocean Interfaces

The outer shells of icy satellites likely formed through top-down freeze-out of their 1185 oceans. On Earth, the majority of thick ice (ice sheets/shelves) is meteoric, form-1186 ing via the compaction of snow. However, sea ice and marine ice on Earth form 1187 directly from the ocean and thus are analogous to what is expected on ocean bear-1188 ing satellites. While forming under different environmental pressures, the thermal 1189 gradient is the main controller of ice chemistry in both sea ice and marine ice (e.g., 1190 Buffo et al, 2018; Buffo, 2019). Analogously, it is likely that the ice-ocean inter-1191 faces of ice shells will be in either a high or low thermal gradient state, depending 1192 on shell thickness and age, where the high thermal gradient regime is similar to 1193 that observed in sea ice and the low thermal gradient by marine ice formed at the 1194 base of ice shelves. 1195

Representative of the high thermal gradient regime, sea ice is easy to observe, 1196 both in the field and with remote sensing, and thus much is known about its struc-1197 ture and formation. The majority of sea ice is composed of granular and columnar 1198 ice (Dempsey and Langhorne, 2012; Dempsey et al, 2010) driven by turbulent 1199 and quiescent ice-ocean interface conditions, respectively. However, in ice-shelf-1200 adjacent sea ice in Antarctica, another process occurs that may be relevant to icy 1201 satellites: platelet ice accretion. Through a process known as the ice pump (e.g., 1202 Lewis and Perkin, 1986), deep ice is melted at high pressures, creating a plume 1203 of fresher water that rises buoyantly along the shelf and out below the sea ice. As 1204 the plume rises, depressurization causes the water to become supercooled (having 1205 temperatures below its *in situ* freezing point) and ice crystals called platelets form 1206 in the water column, rise up to the ice surface, and form a layer of poorly organized 1207 and highly porous ice. Under ice shelves, this layer can grow to immense thick-1208 nesses (>100 m) and becomes marine ice (Fricker et al, 2001; Craven et al, 2005, 1209 2009; Galton-Fenzi et al, 2012). Under sea ice, this platelet layer can be incorpo-1210 rated into the growing sea ice or remain unconsolidated. At the base of actively 1211

forming first year sea ice with low current velocities, transient brine drainage into supercooled water can additionally form brinicles (icicles that form around brine drainage channels), but these become inactive once the sea ice growth slows or platelet accretion takes over.

Two lessons can be gained from sea ice and applied to icy satellites. First, 1216 thermal gradients are critical to the structure and composition of the ice. The 1217 thermal gradient within forming columnar sea ice is  $\sim 10$  K/m, for which the 1218 salinity is  $\sim$ 4-5 ppt (freezing from 34 ppt ocean), and it exhibits a critical porosity 1219 of 4-5% beyond which no brine drainage is observed (e.g., Dempsey et al, 2010; 1220 Golden et al, 2007). High thermal gradient conditions are only relevant for very 1221 shallow ice (<1 km) on icy satellites, or if ocean water is injected rapidly from 1222 depth into the upper regions of their ice shells (Buffo, 2019). In areas where rapid 1223 ice growth does occur, there could be important gradients in rheological properties 1224 that might make these regions more probable to fracture or re-melt (Buffo, 2019). 1225 Second, ice accretion forced by melting of deep draft ice affects the thickness 1226 and properties of distant ice, which is key to consider as an interface process for 1227 other ice-ocean worlds. The thickness of the platelet ice layer is determined not 1228 by ice formation rate through surface cooling, but by the conditions of the ocean 1229 - very thick in large supercooling plumes to non-existent where the ocean is not 1230 supercooled. This layer can be efficiently modeled as an upward sedimented layer 1231 of platelets whose crystal size is controlled by the degree of supercooling and the 1232 layer thickness by the lifetime of the plume (Buffo et al, 2018). 1233

Representative of the low thermal gradient regime, marine ice is found in areas 1234 where supercooled water drives ice accretion onto the base of ice shelves (10s of 1235 meters to kilometers thick meteoric ice). This regime is characterized by very low 1236 thermal gradients,  $\ll 1 \text{ K/m}$ . The thickest marine ice observed on Earth is  $\sim 500 \text{ m}$ 1237 thick, comprising about half the thickness of the Amery ice shelf at its midpoint 1238 (Fricker et al, 2001). Borehole observations showed a many tens of meters thick 1239 unconsolidated platelet layer forming at the bottom of the marine ice (Craven 1240 et al, 2005). The marine ice in Amery demonstrates nearly complete brine rejection 1241 with salinities of 0.03-0.56 ppt (Craven et al, 2009), suggesting compaction driven 1242 desalination. Observations of accreting columnar marine ice at the bottom of the 1243 Ross Ice Shelf can be reproduced using sea ice models and lower thermal gradients: 1244 5% critical porosity at 0.08 K/m yields a theoretical salinity of 1.7 ppt, while 1.95 1245 ppt is estimated using constitutive equation based model results (Buffo, 2019), 1246 which agrees well with field observations of 2.32 ppt (Zotikov et al, 1980). 1247

The thermal gradient expected for most ice shells is squarely within the low-1248 thermal gradient regime (e.g., 0.02 K/m for Europa (McKinnon, 1999)). Once an 1249 ice shell reaches its diffusive limit (<1 km thick ice), the bulk salinity is unlikely 1250 to appreciably change, meaning that while the ice still contains some salt through 1251 accretion, the properties at the ice ocean interface do not change significantly with 1252 regards to the rate or properties of ice accreted (Buffo et al, 2019), in the absence 1253 of platelet ice accretion. This diffusive limit marks how much ocean material the 1254 ice could deliver to the upper shell through convection or diapirism. These values 1255 are robust if the critical porosity is the physical limit past which brines are trapped 1256 within the ice, which is the observed limit in sea ice (Golden et al, 1998, 2007) 1257 and brine layers in ice shelves (Kovacs and Gow, 1975) and matches observations 1258 of sub-ice shelf columnar ice (Buffo, 2019). 1259



Fig. 12 Platelet ice accreting under the McMurdo Ice shelf, imaged from Icefin (Credit: B. E. Schmidt/Icefin/RISEUP). These ice crystals form in supercooled water below the shelf and accrete onto the ice shelf base. In some places, these compact to become marine ice, which may also be a process relevant to planetary ice-ocean interface processes.

Preliminary work by Buffo (2019) suggests that multiphase, hydraulically con-1260 nected layers at the base of planetary ice shells are likely a stable, and thus 1261 common, phenomenon. Furthermore, the environmental pressures these layers are 1262 subject to (i.e., gravity, thermal gradient, ocean composition) likely dictate their 1263 thicknesses and structural properties. As the exchange boundary for energy and 1264 mass between the underlying ocean and ice shell, the structure and dynamics of 1265 these regions will substantially impact the thermochemical evolution of planetary 1266 cryospheres. Additionally, in the analogous terrestrial environments (sea ice and 1267 marine ice), the porous nature of the ice-ocean interface provides a gradient rich 1268 substrate that supports a diverse biome. 1269

1270 5.2 Snowball Earth

At least two extreme glaciations occured on Earth during the late Neoproterozoic 1271 era (750-580 Ma) (Hoffman and Schrag, 2002). The Snowball Earth hypothesis 1272 proposes that the oceans froze over entirely during these episodes, so that the 1273 Earth was an icy ocean world. While debate continues over whether ice cover was 1274 total or partial (Liu and Peltier, 2010), this episode may provide our best terrestrial 1275 proxy for ice covered oceans on a global scale. As with icy worlds in the outer solar 1276 system, a Snowball Earth ocean would be geothermally heated but isolated from 1277 direct solar heating or wind forcing. However, differential solar heating would still 1278 create variations in thickness which would drive global ice flow from pole to equator 1279 (Goodman and Pierrehumbert, 2003). This flow would be balanced by melting and 1280 freezing into the ocean, leading to variations in salinity which would drive ocean 1281 circulation, would close the glaciological cycle through the ocean, creating an ocean 1282

haline-driven circulation (Ashkenazy et al, 2013). All of these dynamics are similar
to predictions for the ice-covered oceans of the outer solar system, particularly the
coupled interaction of global ice flow and haline-driven ocean circulation (Collins
and Goodman, 2007; Ashkenazy et al, 2018; Zhu et al, 2017). Interestingly, the
unsolved question "Was the liquid ocean ever exposed at the surface?" is of key
importance to both fields.

However, there are three key differences. First and most obviously, Earth's oceans are relatively shallow and are interrupted by continents. Their depth lessens the importance of planetary rotation (especially its horizontal component; Farber and Goodman, 2014). The continents block global east-west flows of the type explored by Soderlund et al (2014). On the other hand, coastlines allow fluid parcels to change their vorticity, enabling strong north-south currents that would otherwise be limited by angular momentum constraints (Pedlosky, 1987).

A second difference between Snowball Earth and the icy worlds of the outer 1296 solar system is that Snowball Earth's surface temperatures would have been far 1297 warmer, leading to a totally different pattern of ice flow dynamics. On Earth, 1298 modern-day and Snowball ice sheets flow via uniform strain, gradually spread-1299 ing and thinning while maintaining constant flow velocity with depth (Weertman, 1300 1957; Goodman and Pierrehumbert, 2003). However, this model does not work in 1301 the outer solar system: ice near the surface is too cold to flow at all. Instead, ice 1302 moves by vertical shear flow: warm ice near the base of the ice shell flows hori-1303 zontally beneath a rigid upper shell (e.g., Collins and Goodman, 2007; Ashkenazy 1304 et al. 2018). 1305

Third, Snowball Earth would have had much thinner ice than the icy ocean 1306 worlds. Models of the Snowball Earth ice thickness typically predict ice 200 -1307 1000 m thick (Goodman and Pierrehumbert, 2003), though local regions where 1308 clear ice allows solar penetration could be as thin as a few meters (Warren et al, 1309 2002). In contrast, ice shell thicknesses in the outer solar system range from  $\sim 5$ 1310 km at Enceladus' SPT to hundreds of kilometers for large satellites (e.g., Vance 1311 et al, 2018a). Many of these moons are then likely to be experiencing solid-state 1312 convection, while heat flow through Snowball Earth's ice shell probably occurred 1313 by conduction only. The thickness and weak thermal gradients within ice shells 1314 of ocean worlds also promotes the horizontal movement of ice via vertical shear 1315 rather than uniform strain, as discussed above. 1316

Other important differences also abound, including greater uncertainties about solutes and seafloor heating distribution in the oceans of the outer solar system, but the similarities provide ample ground for collaboration between investigators in both fields.

#### 1321 6 Discussion and Perspectives

1322 6.1 Habitability of Icy Ocean Worlds

The potential habitability of ocean worlds is an exciting prospect that has been commonly discussed for the past three decades, with increasing sophistication (e.g., Reynolds et al, 1983, 1987; Chyba, 2000; Chyba and Phillips, 2001; Hand et al, 2009; Barge and White, 2017; Russell et al, 2017; Schmidt, 2019), mirroring progress in astrobiology towards understanding the requirements to maintain a habitable planet. During this time, the direction of progress has been towards
systems science, which is important for ocean worlds given that while they share
many similarities with the Earth, conditions may be quite different. In particular,
capturing coupled interactions between the geophysical and geochemical evolution of planets is needed given that the Earth and its biosphere coevolved (e.g.,
Des Marais et al, 2008; Hays et al, 2015).

Understanding the energy to support life in a given planetary system is the 1334 central organizing principle of the study of habitability. For the ocean worlds, this 1335 is a chance to understand not just what inventory of material they may have, but 1336 which processes continually supply energy for life. Here, the state of the interior, 1337 implied thermal and chemical evolution, and modern exogenic processes all couple 1338 together. Since light transmission even through pure glacial ice ceases at < 10 m 1339 (Christner et al, 2014), photosynthesis is not a viable energetic pathway for the 1340 ocean worlds. Thus, understanding potential pathways for chemosynthesis (Zolotov 1341 and Shock, 2003, 2004; Russell et al, 2017; Barge and White, 2017) is critical for 1342 understanding the habitability of icy ocean worlds. 1343

Europa's global ocean, coupled with a potentially reducing interior (e.g., Zolo-1344 tov and Shock, 2001; Lowell and DuBose, 2005; Vance et al, 2007, 2016) and 1345 oxidized surface (e.g., McCord et al, 2002; Paranicas et al, 2009) may provide a 1346 source of redox energy for a subsurface biosphere. Life on Earth may have begun in 1347 relatively anoxic conditions potentially similar to conditions on Europa (Barge and 1348 White, 2017; Russell et al, 2017). The surface of Europa is littered with spectrally 1349 detected salts that include MgSO<sub>4</sub>, NaCl, and SO compounds as well as sulfur 1350 implanted from the Io torus (see Carlson et al (2009) for review), and CO and 1351  $CO_2$  have been observed on the other moons but are likely unstable on Europa's 1352 surface (Hibbitts et al, 2000, 2003). Whether the ocean is highly reduced through 1353 interactions between the ocean and the seafloor (e.g., Zolotov and Shock, 2001; 1354 Vance and Goodman, 2009; Vance et al, 2014) or acidic due to downward trans-1355 mission of oxidants from the surface (Pasek and Greenberg, 2012) depends heavily 1356 on surface geology and the exchange rate with the ocean. However, it is unclear 1357 how much of the surface is actually drawn down into the interior and how efficient 1358 surface-subsurface mixing could be. Determining what fraction of the surface is 1359 recycled or reprocessed in place, and how, will be important to constrain with 1360 Europa Clipper, alongside the elemental composition of surface materials. Overall, 1361 conditions of Europa's formation and later bombardment, as well as its past and 1362 potentially present activity, suggest the ingredients for life and present day energy 1363 to support it may exist. 1364

For Enceladus, direct measurements of its ocean composition have been made 1365 by the *Cassini* mission. The ocean likely contains compounds that suggest on-1366 going interaction between the seafloor and ocean, as well as potential fuel for 1367 chemosynthetic life. Ocean-derived material erupting from Enceladus' south pole 1368 contains both simple and complex organics, ice crystals, and salts (Waite et al, 1369 2006, 2009, 2017; Postberg et al, 2011, 2018b), while Hsu et al (2015) demonstrated 1370 the presence of silica nanoparticles that are interpreted as evidence for extensive 1371 hydrothermalism and a well-mixed ocean. Waite et al (2017) demonstrated the 1372 presence of molecular hydrogen that would be available energy for metabolism; 1373 however, it bears questions as to whether hydrogen would be detected if the ocean 1374 were inhabited since this material could be consumed by life. Nonetheless, Ence-1375 ladus' ocean geochemistry is the only measured to date and contains products 1376

known to support life on Earth, and therefore is habitable by current standards.
A mission that would return to Enceladus and search for higher chained organics
and organic complexity *in situ* within the plume could reveal strong indications
as to whether life is present on Enceladus (e.g., Lunine et al, 2018).

For Ganymede and Titan, where high pressure ice phases become important, 1381 the most pertinent question is whether any interaction can be maintained between 1382 the silicate layer and the oceans. Though Ganymede's outer shell is presently 1383 inactive at the surface, its deeper ice layers may overturn under basal heating 1384 from the deeper interior (e.g., Kalousová et al, 2018). Vance et al (2014) showed 1385 that the phase behavior of water-MgSO<sub>4</sub> salt mixtures under Ganymede conditions 1386 can form multiple ocean layers separated by high pressure ice layers, potentially 1387 with a deep reservoir of saline liquid above the silicate core that may argue for 1388 the possibility of serpentinization. Similar conditions could be possible at Titan, 1389 where clathrates may also play a role (Castillo-Rogez and Lunine, 2010) and the 1390 ice shell may not be convecting (e.g., Nimmo and Bills, 2010). It is unclear whether 1391 sources of oxidants could exist within ocean planets with outer ice shells in the 1392 stagnant lid regime, like Ganymede and Titan. However, if mixing between these 1393 reservoirs is possible, or if the decomposition of clathrates can deliver new sources 1394 of energy, these moons could be habitable. Titan's surface habitability is a different 1395 question all together; with liquid ethane and methane across the surface. Titan 1396 could support exotic kinds of habitability, fueled by different chemical compounds, 1397 including benzene (see Lunine et al (2019) for a review). 1398

#### 1399 6.2 In Situ Exploration of Terrestrial Habitats

Ice on Earth is rich with life both within the ice and along its interfaces (e.g., Priscu 1400 and Christner, 2004; Deming and Eicken, 2007). Analog habitats in Antarctica in-1401 clude perennially ice-covered lakes (e.g., Priscu et al, 1998; Murray et al, 2012) and 1402 subglacial lakes such as Vostok and Whillians (Christner et al, 2014; Mikucki et al, 1403 2016). Although communities are supported primarily by the silicate materials at 1404 the bed, most of the communities are chemosynthetic, or rely on the oxidation and 1405 reduction of species such as iron, sulfur, nitrogen and methane as metabolisms. In 1406 the Arctic, subglacial volcanos in Iceland (e.g., Gaidos et al, 2004) and sulfur-rich 1407 subglacial springs expressed at the surface of Borup Fjord (Gleeson et al, 2011, 1408 2012) power similar communities. 1409

A growing amount of research is conducted via field studies with analog mis-1410 sion technologies, from *in situ* and remote sensing instrumentation to full vehicle 1411 platforms. Drilling vehicles are being developed for future missions as well as deep 1412 glacial access. In addition to ocean gliders (e.g., Lee and Rudnick, 2018) and open 1413 ocean AUVs (e.g., Jenkins, 2010; Dutrieux et al, 2014) that have been devel-1414 oped for oceanographic operations on Earth, vehicles developed with ocean world 1415 exploration beyond Earth in mind include BRUIE (Berisford et al, 2013), EN-1416 DURANCE (Gulati et al, 2010), ARTEMIS (Kimball et al, 2018), Nereid Under 1417 Ice (German and Boetius, 2019), and Icefin (Meister et al, 2018) and have operated 1418 under either lake ice, sea ice and/or ice shelves. These vehicles are returning data 1419 about physical and oceanographic processes as well as communities under the ice, 1420 including ice-ocean exchange. 1421

6.3 Future Exploration 1422

Future missions can investigate ice-ocean exchange in the outer solar system. 1423 NASA's planned Europa Clipper mission concept would conduct multiple science 1424 investigations (Buffington et al, 2017). In situ sampling of Europa's atmosphere 1425 would look for compositional and isotopic signatures of ocean pH and water-rock 1426 interactions. Remote sensing from the ultraviolet to mid-infrared would provide 1427 1428 global mapping of 95% of the surface to better than 50 m/pixel. Ice-penetrating radar would sound through kilometers of ice to characterize ice shell structure and 1429 search for the ice-ocean interface. Gravity science, magnetometer/plasma, and 1430 altimetry investigations to constrain the thickness of the ocean and underlying 1431 silicate layer, as well as the vigor of tidal heating, are also important for under-1432 standing the workings of the ice relative to the underlying materials (Pauer et al, 1433 2010; Verma and Margot, 2018; Steinbrügge et al, 2018). A complementary suite 1434 of instrument investigations are planned to fly on ESA's JUICE spacecraft Grasset 1435 et al (2013), which is set to orbit Ganymede in the early 2030's. 1436

Landed geophysical investigations on Europa (Pappalardo et al, 2013; Hand 1437 et al, 2017) could more precisely evaluate the satellite's radial density structure, 1438 rheological state and thermal state of its mantle, and extent of seafloor hydration 1439 (Vance et al, 2018a,b). At the time of this writing, the *InSight* mission is con-1440 ducting a geophysical investigation of Mars, using seismometers and heat probes 1441 to further characterize the radial structure, composition, and temperature of the 1442 interior (Smrekar et al, 2018). The DragonFly concept, selected as NASA's next 1443 New Frontiers class mission, would include seismic and mass spectrometer inves-1444 tigations that could reveal the hydration state of silicates in Titan's interior and 1445 the degree of ice-ocean exchange (Turtle et al, 2017). 1446

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